

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 236 372

CE 037 428

AUTHOR de la Puente, Manuel; Bendick, Marc, Jr.
TITLE Employment and Training Programs for Migrant and
Refugee Youth: Lessons from the United States
Experience. Project Report.
INSTITUTION Urban Inst., Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE Aug 83
NOTE 143p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Adolescents; Bilingual Education; Career Education;
Demonstration Programs; Employment Potential;
*Employment Programs; Federal Programs; *Immigrants;
*Job Training; Postsecondary Education; *Refugees;
Vocational Education; Work Experience Programs; Young
Adults; Youth; *Youth Employment; *Youth Programs

ABSTRACT

This report reviews government programs in the United States that serve the educational, training, and employment needs of immigrant and refugee youth. An overview of European immigration to the United States during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries is followed by a presentation of the characteristics of post-1960 U.S. immigrants. Empirically based generalizations related to the adjustment and acculturation of immigrants and refugees are examined. Discussion next focuses on the most serious single problem encountered: language limitation. An analysis of bilingual educational programs includes a summary of legislation, a discussion of competing ideologies that have guided U.S. thinking on cultural diversity and bilingual education, a review of bilingual education models, and synthesis of research findings pertaining to bilingual program effectiveness. Selected government manpower programs that serve the training and employment needs of minority and immigrant youths are then reviewed. Three major strategies are covered: work experience programs in the public sector, employability development programs, and initiatives that seek to involve the private sector. Within each broad strategy, specific exemplary programs are discussed and major evaluation research is reviewed. Finally, some general lessons from the U.S. experience are delineated. Eleven statistical tables and references are appended. (YLB)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

ED236372

EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS
FOR
MIGRANT AND REFUGEE YOUTH:
LESSONS FROM THE UNITED STATES
EXPERIENCE

Manuel de la Puente
and
Marc Bendick, Jr.

August 1983

Project Report

THE URBAN INSTITUTE
2100 M STREET, N.W.
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20037 U.S.A.
(202) 223-1950

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this docu-
ment do not necessarily represent official NIE
position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

in Bendick

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. AN OVERVIEW OF IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES	3
2.1 Historical Background, 1776-1960	3
2.2 Post 1960 Immigration to the United States	5
2.3 Demographic and Sociceconomic Characteristics of Post 1960 Immigrants to the U.S.	9
2.4 Targeting Assistance Resources: What Empirical Evidence Suggests	15
3. BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS	24
3.1 Among Immigrant and Refugee Groups Language Limitations are a Pervasive Problem	24
3.2 Legislative History	27
3.3 Bilingualism in the U.S. Does not Have a Single Ideological Base	29
3.4 Hispanics as well a Other Non-English Speaking Groups Participate in Bilingual Programs	36
3.5 There is no Standardized Model of Bilingual Programs	40
3.6 Assessment of Bilingual Programs	44
4. WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR	53
4.1 Neighborhood Youth Corps	54
4.2 Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects	60
4.3 Young Adult Conservation Corps	64
4.4 Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects	65
4.5 Summer Youth Programs	67
4.6 Supported Work	70
4.7. Public Service Employment	73

	<u>Page</u>
5. EMPLOYABILITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS	78
5.1 Job Corps	79
5.2 Youth Employment and Training Program	89
5.3 Bilingual Vocational Education	91
6. ENLISTING THE PRIVATE SECTOR	93
6.1 Targeted Jobs Tax Credit Program	94
6.2 Voluntary Resettlement Organizations	97
7. SOME GENERAL THEMES IN THE U.S. EXPERIENCE	102
APPENDIX: STATISTICAL TABLES	108
REFERENCES	126

TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
1. Age Distribution of Hispanic Immigrants by Country of Origin by Sex: 1978	109
2. Percentage Having Difficulty with English, By Current Languages Other than English Spoken in United States' Homes: 1979	111
3. Elementary and Secondary Public School Enrollment and Enrollment in Special Language Assistance Programs by Race and Ethnicity: 1979	113
4. Twelve States with the Largest Primary and Secondary School Enrollment of Refugee Children	114
5. Employment Status of White, Black, and Hispanics Ages 16 to 19: 1981	115
6. Employment Status of Hispanic Subgroups Ages 16 to 19: 1981	116
7. Selected Characteristics of Neighborhood Youth Corps Enrollees: Fiscal Year 1974	117
8. Characteristics of Participants in CETA Titles I, II, and VI, and Summer Youth Programs for Fiscal Year 1978	119
9. Program Activities and Enrollment in Selected CETA Youth Programs for Fiscal Year 1980	122
10. Selected Characteristics of Job Corps Enrollees: Fiscal Year 1978	123
11. Job Corps Placement for Fiscal Year 1978.	124

1. INTRODUCTION

This report reviews government programs in the United States that serve the educational, training, and employment needs of immigrant and refugee youth. It covers both programs designed explicitly to meet the needs of immigrant young people and programs that serve substantial numbers of immigrant youth within programs targeted on minority or disadvantaged youth generally. This paper was commissioned by the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs to make available to Australian policy discussions the experience of the United States in dealing with a problem common to both countries.

The report is organized as follows:

- First, we provide an overview of European immigration to the United States during the 19th and 20th centuries. This will be followed by a presentation of the characteristics of post 1960 immigrants to the U.S.
- Second, we examine empirically based generalization related to the adjustment and acculturation of immigrants and refugees. These principles are relevant to current policy making through the guidance they provide concerning the targeting of government resources designed to assist the immigrant adjustment process.

- Third, we discuss the most serious single problem encountered by most immigrants and refugees -- the inability to communicate in the language of the host country. This is followed by an analysis of bilingual educational programs which includes: (a) a summary of legislation pertinent to bilingual education; (b) a discussion of competing ideologies that have guided U.S. thinking on cultural diversity in general and bilingual education in particular; (c) a review of models of bilingual education; and (d) a synthesis of research findings pertaining to the effectiveness of bilingual programs.
- Fourth, we review selected government manpower programs that serve the training and employment needs of minority and immigrant youths. Our focus covers three major strategies: (a) work experience programs in the public sector; (b) employability development programs; and (c) initiatives which seek to involve the private sector. Within each of these broad strategies, we discuss specific exemplary programs and review major evaluation research.
- Finally, drawing on our prior discussions we delineate some general lessons from the U.S. experience that may prove useful to Australian policy discussions.

2. AN OVERVIEW OF IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES

2.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND, 1776-1860

At the time of the American Revolution (1776), the white population of the area which was to become the United States was by and large English and Protestant. Germans, Scottish-Irish, French, Dutch and Swedes were present but accounted for relatively small percentages of the population. Catholics comprised an even lower percentage of the total population.

Between 1820 and 1920, approximately 33 million immigrants entered the United States. Social scientists divide immigration to the U.S. during this period into two major segments. The first is commonly referred to as the "old immigration" and the second as the "new immigration" (Gordon 1964; Sowell 1974; Aliberti 1979; Fuchs 1983). However, there are substantial overlaps between these two categories, and the dividing point between the two is not sharply drawn.

The "old immigration" consisted mainly of British, French, German, and Irish immigrants, and it lasted until the 1860s. Over 85 percent of those who entered the United States prior to the 1880's were from northern and western Europe (Kressler-Harris and Yans-McLaughlin 1978).

During the 1860s, immigrants from southern and eastern Europe began to arrive in the United States in large numbers. A substantial proportion of these immigrants were from Italy, Poland, and other southern and eastern European nations. This post 1860 influx is commonly referred to as the "new immigration".

The large immigration flows to the United States during the 19th and early 20th centuries had a noticeable demographic impact. In 1910, 14.6 percent of the U.S. population was foreign-born, and it remained over 10 percent for the next twenty years, reaching 13.2 percent in 1920 and 11.6 percent in 1930. Thereafter, the percentage of foreign-born persons steadily declined until 1970, when 6.2 percent of the total U.S. population was of foreign birth (Hacker, 1983: 44).

The economic and social conditions faced by the "old immigrants" were different than those encountered by the "new immigrants". Those who came before the 1840s had the opportunity to participate in the rapid economic development and early industrialization that was then underway in the United States, a large part of which involved independent farms and small businesses. Those arriving in the latter part of the 19th century had relatively less opportunities to establish an independent business and instead tended to become employed in larger industrial enterprises. However, considerable variation was experienced among immigrant groups. For example, southern

and eastern European Jews entered the U.S. in large numbers beginning in the latter part of the 19th century. They tended to advance socioeconomically at a faster rate than their "new immigrant" counterparts (e.g., Italians and Poles) and in many instances achieved greater socioeconomic gains than some "old immigrant" groups (e.g., the Irish). Another case in point are the northern Italians who were more economically successful than their fellow countrymen from southern Italy.

2.2 Post 1960 Immigration to the United States

Since the 1960s, immigration to the United States from northern and western Europe has declined while immigration from Asian and Latin American countries has increased markedly.¹ By 1980, less than 6 percent of all immigrants (including refugees) came from northern and western Europe, while approximately 85 percent came from Latin America and Asian countries

¹ Unless otherwise stated, statistics on immigrants cited herein pertain to persons allowed to establish residence in the U.S. This is the definition utilized by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS). Undocumented immigrants and refugees are not included in this population. Individuals can reside in the U.S. as refugees or undocumented aliens for years before they are classified as immigrants by the INS and included in their official count of foreign-born persons in the country. For a more detailed discussion of the INS definition, see U.S. Bureau of the Census (1982: 85-6).

(e.g., see Bouvier, 1982). This shift has taken place progressively over during the past half century, but the most drastic changes have occurred since 1960.

Since the 1960s, the proportion of Hispanics entering the U.S. has remained constant at about a 32 percent share of all immigrants. Between 1960 and 1969, the total number of Hispanic immigrants was 1,044,468 or 32.5 percent of the total. In the decade that followed there was a slight increase with 1,207,032 Hispanics entering the U.S., or 32 percent of all foreign arrivals during that period (Massey, 1982b: table 2.1). These data do not account for undocumented immigrants, most of whom are Mexicans. Although exact figures are not available, most experts agree that 3 to 6 million undocumented Mexicans are residing in this country, with an estimated additional 2 million expected to enter the U.S. in 1983 (e.g., see Massey, 1982b; Time, 1983). Mexican undocumented immigrants to the U.S. comprise the largest share (albeit unquantifiable) of the total number of Hispanic newcomers (see Sehgal and Vialet, 1980).

Political and economic conditions in communist and third world countries have, of course, contributed in sizeable ways to these influxes.

Over 800,000 Cubans have immigrated to the United States since the establishment of the Castro communist government in Cuba in 1959. For the most part, these Cubans and their U.S.

born offspring have successfully adjusted to the United States.² However, recent arrivals -- those who entered the U.S. via the boat lift of the Spring of 1980 -- have had relatively more difficulty in adjusting.³ Over 125,000 Cuban refugees have entered the United States as a result of the 1980 boat lift.

Due to their relative large numbers and the precipitous increase in the number of entrants to the U.S. since the fall of Saigon in April 1975, Indochinese refugees have been the focus of much attention from the Federal Government, voluntary resettlement agencies, and the research community.⁴ According to data from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), nearly 550,000 Southeast Asian refugees resided in the United States as of the end of FY 1981. Of these, 24 percent have been in the U.S. for less than one year and 55

² For studies of the social and economic adjustment of Cuban migrants who entered the United States prior to the 1980 boat lift, see: Rogg, 1974; Rogg and Cooney, 1980; Portes, 1977; Portes et al., 1981; Portes, 1969; Wenk, 1968; Fagen et al., 1968; and Casal and Hernandez, 1975, among others.

³ For the studies on the social and economic adjustment of Cuban immigrants who arrived in the U.S. as a result of the 1980 boat lift, see: Bach et al., 1981; Bach, 1980; and Fernandez.

⁴ On the social and economic adjustment of Indochinese refugees see: Liff, 1980; Bach and Bach, 1980; Kitand, 1981.

percent for less than two years. In FY 1980 a total of 64,379 Indochinese were approved for admission to the U.S. This number nearly doubled in FY 1981, when 123,250 such refugees were approved for entry.⁵

The number of immigrants from nations other than Mexico, Cuba, and the Asian countries are relatively small. For example, the number of refugees from the Soviet Union to the U.S. has declined in recent years. INS reports that in FY 1981, approximately 11,500 Soviets were approved for entry; this is over a 50 percent decline from the previous year. The number of refugees to the U.S. from other nations is negligible. In FY 1981 the INS figures show that a total of 19,422 such refugees (excluding Indochinese, Cubans, and Soviets) were approved for entry.

⁵ U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981 and 1982). Data on Indochinese and other refugee groups have been compiled from the following sources: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981 and 1982; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977 and 1979; Liff, 1980; Bach et al., 1981; Bach and Bach, 1980; Bach, 1980; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1980; Marsh, 1980.

2.3 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF POST 1960 IMMIGRANTS TO THE U.S.

In the following discussion (and often throughout this paper), our primary focus will be on Hispanic and Indochinese immigrants. This focus is chosen because, these two immigrant populations constitute the largest proportion of post 1960 entrants into the United States, have a relatively young age structure, and encounter a disproportionate amount of employment difficulties. Also, their participation in government programs has been most fully documented. Therefore, their experience is most useful in discussing public programs for easing the employment problems of immigrant youth.

2.3.1 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

From 1975 through 1978, the median age for all Hispanic immigrants to the United States fell in the 24 (for males) and 26 (for females) range. Approximately 40 percent were age 19 or younger. However, there are noteworthy differences within this immigrant population. Table 1 shows that this median age of all immigrants is more representative of Mexicans (and, to a lesser extent, Central and South Americans) than of Cubans. This latter group has the highest median age ranging from 36 to 38.

In reference to the post 1980 Cuban refugees, survey data from four resettlement camps throughout the U.S. reveal that by and large these refugees were single males with an average age in the low thirties (the largest share between 25 and 29 years old). Only 8 to 10 percent of the Cuban refugees were below age 14 (e.g., see Bach et al., 1981).

Indochinese immigrants who entered the U.S. soon after the fall of the Saigon government were slightly older than subsequent entrants. In January 1981, a lower proportion were aged 17 or below (37 percent) than in 1976 (42.6 percent). However, a large proportion of Indochinese refugees remain in the group under 24 years of age. In fiscal year 1981, almost 56 percent were under age 24.⁶

2.3.2 EDUCATION

Hispanic youths (1) have lower enrollment rates in primary and secondary schools than their white and black counterparts, (2) are more likely than non-Hispanic youths to be below their grade level in school, and (3) have a relatively higher school attrition rate than non-Hispanic white and black youths.⁷

⁶ U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1982; and Liff, 1980.

⁷ These general trends in the education of Hispanics are documented in Brown et al. (1980), which also provides a comprehensive analysis of the role of Hispanics in the educational system.

There is very little difference in school enrollment among Hispanics, blacks, and whites in the early school years, aged 5 to 15. The school enrollment rate for all three groups in this age category is above 95 percent. However, 16 and 17 year old Hispanics have an enrollment rate of 81.8 percent, compared to 88.6 percent for blacks and 90.6 percent for whites. The gap continues to widen among those aged 18 and 19, with only 37.8 percent of Hispanics enrolled in school, compared to 45.7 percent of blacks and 46.3 percent of whites. And finally, among 20-21 year olds, 19.5 percent of Hispanics are enrolled in school compared to 23.4 percent of blacks and 31.9 percent of whites (Massey, 1982a: Table 3.11).

Overall, Hispanics lag behind whites in median school years completed. Among 14 to 17 year olds, Hispanics have completed 9.1 median years of schooling compared to 9.4 for whites. Hispanics in the 18-19 age bracket have 11.9 median years of schooling compared to 12.3 for whites (Massey, 1982b: Table 3.9). This suggests that many Hispanics in this age category have not graduated from secondary (12 years of schooling) school while whites have graduated from secondary school and many are increasing their educational attainment through some other type of third-level schooling.

With respect to difficulty with English, Table 2 shows that 13.9 percent of Spanish-speaking residents of the United States aged 5 to 17 and 34.1 percent aged 18 or over have some difficulty with English. In recognition of this high figure, Table 3 shows that 20.2 percent of Hispanic elementary and secondary school students are enrolled in bilingual school programs.

Approximately 45 percent of Indochinese refugees are of school age. Data on the educational status and performance of Indochinese youth is less comprehensive than those available for Hispanics. However, publications from U.S. government agencies and refugee organizations repeatedly emphasize that the single most serious problem among this immigrant group is lack of proficiency in English. Furthermore, many of these youngsters have fallen behind in their academic studies due to prolonged residence in refugee camps prior to U.S. entry. Thus, most face not only difficulty with English but educational problems with their native tongue as well.⁸ An estimated 50 percent of school aged Indochinese refugees need extensive English language instruction, and about 15 percent are illiterate in their native language.

⁸ See: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1982; Keeley, 1978; Indochina Refugee Action Center, 1980; and Liff, 1980.

2.3.3 LABOR MARKET PROFILE

Compared to white youth, lower percentages of both Hispanic and black youths are in the labor force and employed. As reported in Table 5, the unemployment rate of Hispanic youth in 1981 -- 24.0 percent is lower than that of blacks but higher than the rate for whites. A low labor force participation rate is an extension of a high rate of unemployment, because many unemployed teenagers unable to find work report that they are no longer actively seeking work, a status which causes them to be reported in U.S. data as out of the labor force.

We get a better sense of the employment situation among Hispanic youths by disaggregating this group into three major subgroups--Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans. Table 6 shows that a higher proportion of Mexican and Cubans than Puerto Ricans are in the labor force. Puerto Ricans generally have higher unemployment rates than Mexicans. This is particularly true in 1981 when the unemployment rate for Puerto Ricans reached a high of 42.5 percent compared to 22.6 percent for Mexicans.

Important similarities between black and Hispanic youths emerge when we compare the employment statuses reported in Tables 5 and 6. The labor force standing of Puerto Ricans come very close to that of blacks making them the most disadvantaged

group among Hispanics. For both groups, the percentage not in the labor force is within the 60 to 70 percent range. Another noteworthy similarity between Puerto Ricans and blacks are their relatively high rates of unemployment. The rate for Puerto Ricans came close to the 30 percent mark for three consecutive years (1977 through 1979), and the jobless rate for blacks during the same period was between 36 and 41 percent. In 1981 the Puerto Rican jobless rate was slightly higher than that of blacks -- 42.5 percent compared to 41.4 percent.

Unfortunately, detailed employment data on Indochinese immigrant youth are not available. However analyses of adult Indochinese refugees show that, generally, early arrivals -- those entering the U.S. soon after the demise of the Saigon regime in 1975 -- have adjusted better than more recent entrants. Unlike earlier groups of Indochinese refugees, those who entered the U.S. after 1978 have low levels of education (some are illiterate in their native language); lack employable skills; are concentrated in the dependent ages (youth and old age); and tend to receive some form of public assistance.⁹

⁹ Bach and Bach, 1980; U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981 and 1982; and Massey, 1981.

2.4 TARGETING ASSISTANCE RESOURCES: WHAT EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE SUGGESTS

Some empirically based generalizations related to the adjustment and acculturation of immigrants and refugees are listed below. These generalizations have been derived by American researchers, based largely on the historical immigration experiences described in this chapter. They are relevant to current policy through the guidance they provide concerning the targeting of government resources designed to assist the immigrant adjustment process.¹⁰

1. Immigrants who come to the host nation at a young age adjust at a more rapid rate than immigrants who enter the host country in their adult years.

Children who are beginning to develop language and learning skills find adjusting to new settings easier than persons in late adolescence, early adulthood, and beyond. This suggests that (holding all other factors constant) special government initiatives to assist youth assimilation may be more urgent for migrants who arrive as adolescents than for those who arrive as young children.

¹⁰ The investigations on which these principles are based include: Warner and Sorole 1945; Eisenstadt 1953 and 1954; Gordon 1961 and 1964; Petersen and Scheff 1965; Fitzpatrick 1966; Berry 1980; and Padilla 1980.

2. Among adults, males tend to find it easier to adjust and learn the ways of the host society than females.

This finding is based on factors associated with traditional gender roles and low workforce participation of women. Generally speaking, when immigrant females follow traditional gender roles where the woman is expected to devote the bulk of her time to domestic duties, these women are relatively more isolated from the host nation than their immigrant male counterparts. This principle suggests that female youths, particularly those out of school, may require more intensive adjustment assistance than male youth, particularly that providing information pertaining to educational, occupational training, and labor market options. Encouraging this segment of the immigrant population to engage in activities outside the household would increase their exposure to the host society and as a result improve their economic and social adjustment.

3. Immigrants who have achieved high levels of education and training prior to immigration find it easier to adjust than those who have lower levels of schooling.

Immigrants who come to a host country with a trade or profession generally encounter fewer problems in adjusting than their less educated and less skilled counterparts. The offspring of educated immigrants tend to stay in school and pursue advanced studies. The implication of this finding is that youths with parents of low education probably require extra attention.

4. Immigrants who are fluent in the language of the host country adjust more successfully and with fewer problems than immigrants who do not speak the language of the receiving society.¹¹

The role of language skills in the adjustment of immigrant groups cannot be overemphasized. Language constraints are a problem for the adult immigrants as well as for their offspring. Children from households where the primary language is not that of the host nation encounter more difficulty in school than children from households where the primary language is that of the host nation. Immigrant parents pass on to their children the undesirable consequences of language constraints. The negative effects are direct -- by not using the host language in the household -- as well as indirect -- through the low income and education of the head householder which is a result of the inability to communicate effectively in the language of the host nation. Principle number 4 provides strong support for extra attention to immigrant youths from households with limited host language ability.

¹¹ for example, see National Commission for Employment Policy, 1982.

5. Immigrants who had high socioeconomic standing in their native country encounter relatively less difficulty in adjusting to the host country than immigrants who had low socioeconomic standing in their native country.

There are several qualifications to this principle. First, immigrants and refugees who held professional positions or high status occupations in their native country tend to experience downward occupational mobility during the first few years in the host nation. However, as they learn the language of the host country and pass through the necessary steps to practice their profession or trade in the host society (e.g., licensing requirements), they tend to regain some, but not all, of their occupational status (for Cubans, see Rogg, 1970; Rogg and Cooney, 1980; for Indochinese, see March, 1980; Kitano, 1981; and Finnan, 1980).

Another qualification is that a higher proportion of immigrants and refugees of high socioeconomic status (SES) tend to report emotional problems (e.g., stress and nervousness) than low SES immigrants (for example, see Rogg 1970; Rogg and Cooney 1980). Researchers note that high SES immigrants tend to feel a greater sense of loss -- in terms of economic and social standing -- than low SES immigrants, hence the former tend to experience greater stress upon arrival. An important factor here is the opportunities provided by the receiving country to the immigrant in relation to his profession. The U.S. government provided Cuban refugees with opportunities to reenter

their professions in the U.S. For example, programs were established for Cuban medical doctors and school teachers to obtain recertification in the U.S. (Moncraz, 1969 documents these programs). In general, however, immigrants and refugees that have a profession or trade do much better, socioeconomically, than those who lack these human capital characteristics.

Socioeconomic background plays an important role in identifying the educational and employment needs of immigrant youths. Empirical evidence from the status attainment literature in sociology show that parents' education, occupation, and income has a sizeable influence on the socio-economic achievements of their offspring.¹² On the basis of these findings, immigrant youths from low SES households will in general need more assistance than those from more advantaged households.

6. Immigrants with economic and social characteristics that approximate those of the host population have less difficulty in adjusting than those whose social and economic characteristics differ substantially from those of the host population.

The more the host population and the immigrant population are alike in dimensions such as education, economic standing,

¹² The following are among the most influential studies in the status attainment literature: Blau and Duncan 1967; Sewell and Hauser 1975; and Featherman and Hauser 1978. Featherman and Hauser (1978:chapter 8) devote an entire chapter to the status attainment of immigrant groups.

values and ideology, and racial traits, the smoother the adjustment process. Conversely, the more dissimilar are the immigrants and the host society, the more special adjustment assistance will be required.

7. Immigrants' aspirations and expectations and the ability to meet them in the host nation are positively related to adjustment.

This principle refers to the opportunity structures of the host country. Aspiration and expectation levels are influenced by numerous factors, chief among them being the immigrants' perception of the opportunities available to translate aspirations and expectations into tangible outcomes. Programs that provide immigrant youths with avenues to fulfill their aspirations and expectations where the immigrant youths would otherwise not encounter such opportunities will facilitate their adjustment.

8. The more contact the immigrant has with the host society, the faster the adjustment process.

This principle was indirectly addressed by principle number 2, which stated that immigrant males tend to adjust more successfully than immigrant females, who generally have fewer contacts outside the household. Principle number 8 is also based on the contention that segregation breeds distrust and misunderstanding. One implication of this is that whenever possible, immigrant youths should not be segregated from their non-immigrant counterparts. Educational and vocational programs

that service underprivileged native youths can also serve immigrant youths with similar needs.

A second implication is that highest priority in providing assistance might be given to youths most isolated in ethnic "ghetto" situations.

9. Where the host nation's attitude toward the immigrant is favorable, the immigrant is more likely to adjust with a minimum of difficulty.

This axiom is related to principle number 8. Favorable attitudes among the host population toward the immigrant can, to some extent, be promoted through programs that encourage contact between the host and immigrant population.

This principle may imply that one way in which government programs can promote the adjustment of migrants is to target efforts on citizens of the host society, to increase their contact with immigrants and increase their positive attitudes toward them.

10. A strong immigrant community can both accelerate and hamper the adjustment of the immigrant.

Typical characteristics of immigrant communities are: a high degree of primary group contact -- not only among immediate relatives but also among extended family members; residential propinquity -- living close to relatives and friends facilitates

kin contact and mutual aid; ethnic social clubs and organizations -- immigrants tend to transplant some of the social structures of their country of origin, such as religious institutions, cultural organizations and community clubs.

While these characteristics may facilitate adjustment in the short run, they slow down acculturation and assimilation in the long run. However, with respect to recent arrivals, the immigrant community can be an important source of psychological, social, and economic support.

In light of the existence of these strong community institutions, programs for immigrant youths might be established within the immigrant community to allow full use of the resources within the community and to make these institutions an instrument for acculturation rather than a strong force opposing it. Programs that are undertaken as a joint venture between the host sponsor and the immigrant community probably stand a better chance for success than strategies that do not make use of the immigrant community.

11. Immigrants who arrive at a host country where there is not a settlement of immigrants of the same nationality experience more adjustment problems than immigrants who arrive at a host nation with an established immigrant community.

This axiom is related to principle number 10, and reaffirms the saliency of a strong immigrant community. Immigrant groups who are first to arrive will require more supportive services

from the host nation than later arrivals, and immigrants who arrive in isolation will also require extra attention.

12. Immigrants who have frequent contact with their native country tend to adjust at a slower rate than those who do not maintain continued contact with their country of origin.

Immigrants who decide to settle permanently in the host country stand a better chance of achieving economic independence and social adjustment (e.g., achieving fluency in the host language) than those who intend to return to their homeland.¹³

¹³ Some analysts maintain that an important factor in the relatively low acculturation level of Mexicans in the U.S. is their proximity to the Mexican border (e.g., Jaffe et al, 1980). The low socioeconomic standing of Puerto Ricans, relative to other Hispanic groups, has in part been attributed to their travels to and from the island of Puerto Rico and the U.S.

3. BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

3.1 AMONG IMMIGRANT AND REFUGEE GROUPS, LANGUAGE LIMITATIONS ARE A PERVASIVE PROBLEM.

Probably the most serious single problem encountered by most immigrants and refugees is their inability to communicate in the host language. With the increasing number of non-English speaking immigrants to the United States, language has become an important policy issue. For these immigrants, language problem begins in the home, where English is not the dominant language; continues in the schools, where lack of command of English interferes with learning in all subjects; and is perpetuated in the workforce, where lack of fluency in English is a major obstacle to good employment.

One major population group which readily illustrates the language problem of immigrants in the U.S. are Hispanics. In a recent report, the U.S. National Commission for Employment Policy (NCEP) stated that lack of proficiency in English, low levels of formal education, and discrimination in the labor market are the three most salient factors responsible for the low socioeconomic standing of Hispanic Americans (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1982).

Among the major points pertaining to language constraints noted by the NCEP report are: (1) The language problem begins in the home. Approximately 70 percent of children aged 5 to 14

who live in Spanish-speaking households are likely to experience difficulty with English. Among youths (those aged 14 to 21), about 46 percent may have difficulty in speaking English.

(2) Overall, an estimated 40 percent of Hispanics have some difficulty with English. About 15 percent of those 21 years or older speak only Spanish, while 29 percent communicate primarily in Spanish. And (3) immigrants are not the only segment of the Hispanic population with language difficulties. As many as 25 percent of Hispanics born in the U.S. have trouble communicating in English.

Indochinese refugees are another immigrant group where adjustment difficulties due to lack of command of English are readily apparent. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) -- the government agency that oversees most of the U.S.'s refugee resettlement programs -- has consistently noted in its report to the U.S. Congress that knowledge of English is the first and crucial step in ensuring the successful adjustment of Indochinese refugees into the U.S. (Department of Health and Human Services, 1979, 1980, and 1981; see also General Accounting Office, 1979; and Indochina Refugee Action Center, 1980, 1981a, 1981b, 1981c). An overwhelming percentage of Indochinese refugees do not speak English. A recent survey of resettlement camps revealed that of those 18 years of age or older, over 50 percent speak no English. Approximately 25 percent have some knowledge of English but not enough to communicate effectively (Kelly, 1978). Another report notes that

45 percent of recent Indochinese arrivals are school-age children. An estimated 50 percent of these children need English language instruction, and 15 percent are illiterate in their native language (Liff, 1980).¹⁴

Bilingual education programs are one major thrust of the American educational system's response to this priority immigrant need. There are several generalizations about U.S. bilingual education programs which are commonly held but not necessarily true. Among the most important in terms of public policy are (a) the perception that bilingualism in the U.S. is a unified movement with supporters sharing a common ideology; (b) the belief that bilingual programs are efforts primarily directed at the language needs of Hispanics; and (c) the assumption that non-English language groups comprise a sociological and economic homogeneous population. We need to assess the accuracy of these generalizations about U.S. bilingual programs in order to draw from them lessons that will prove useful for bilingual programs in Australia.¹⁵

¹⁴ For a discussion of the socioeconomic characteristics and employment patterns of post 1975 Indochinese immigrants to the United States, see Marsh (1980) and Bach and Bach (1980).

¹⁵ In the U.S., most language adjustment programs for immigrant and refugee youths are operated by the school system. Our discussion will, therefore, focus on programs in the primary and secondary school level. In other sections of this report we will point to bilingual programs that are not sponsored through the schools. Participants in these programs, however, are mainly immigrant adults who are preparing to enter the workforce.

3.2 LEGISLATIVE HISTORY

Bilingual education is not a new idea. Since the 19th century, immigrants to the U.S. have made concerted efforts to preserve their native language by advocating that the schools provide instruction in both their native tongue and English. In the early 1800s, eleven states had legislation that permitted public schools to deliver instruction in languages other than English (Ross, 1978; Durante, 1982). For example, in 1840 German immigrants in Cincinnati, Ohio demanded that the schools give their children instruction in both German and English (Thernstrom, 1980).

In the 1880s, bilingual instruction began to lose its popularity. This change coincided with the massive immigration of Eastern Europeans. Educators and policy makers placed more emphasis on the "Americanization of immigrants" than on preserving non-English language and culture. By 1923, a total of 32 states had passed legislation establishing English as the sole language of instruction (Durante, 1982).

This emphasis on monolingualism ended in the 1960s with legislation that came about as a result of the civil rights movement.¹⁶ Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 set

¹⁶ For an excellent overview of the legislative history of bilingual programs see Ross (1978). Thernstrom (1980) provides a less comprehensive historical overview but links major pieces (Footnote continued on next page)

the stage for the intervention of the federal government in bilingual programs. The Bilingual Education Act -- Title VII in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1968 -- is also a landmark legislation. Subsequently legal modifications were made to bilingual program legislation, largely as a result of court cases, Lau v. Nchols being one of the most important.¹⁷

In recent years the Reagan administration approved cutting funds for bilingual education, from \$167 in fiscal year 1981 to \$138 for fiscal year 1982. More reductions in federal monies for bilingual programs are currently under consideration by the Congress.

(footnote continued from preceding page)
of legislation to bilingual policy issues. The discussion by Masanz and Gabey (1982) is focused on the language needs of Hispanics but also provides a useful discussion of policy issues associated with bilingual education.

¹⁷ The Lau v. Nichols case was brought to the U.S. Supreme Court by non-English speaking Chinese public school students in San Francisco, California. Approximately 1800 such students were being instructed in English. The plaintiffs challenged the failure of San Francisco public schools to provide non-English speaking students with instruction in their native language, thus failing to comply with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act. The Supreme Court decided in favor of the students. This court decision has generated much discussion among researchers, policy makers, those in the legal profession, as well as the concerned public. The controversy centers around the interpretation of the Supreme Court decision. More specifically the debates are over (1) how to define "limited English Speaking Ability" and (2) what constitutes "appropriate action" by the public schools. See Ross, 1978; Thernstrom, 1980; and Durante, 1982.

3.3 BILINGUALISM IN THE U.S. DOES NOT HAVE A SINGLE IDEOLOGICAL BASE

3.3.1 THREE IDEOLOGIES CONCERNING CULTURAL PLURALISM

The rise and fall of the bilingual approach to providing education to immigrant youth and other limited-English children is related to some long-standing ideological controversies in American society concerning cultural pluralism. In particular, three competing ideologies have alternated as dominant in American thinking and in guiding much of the history of immigrant and refugee resettlement and adjustment efforts in the United States. These three ideologies can be labelled: (a) anglo conformity, (b) melting pot, and (c) cultural pluralism, respectively.¹⁸

ANGLO CONFORMITY

The main objective of the anglo conformity ideology was to maintain and perpetuate the dominance of English institutions in the United States as inherited from the mother country and

¹⁸ The discussion of these ideologies is based on the writings of Gordon, 1964; Glazer and Moynihan, 1970; Greely 1974; and Fuchs, 1983. The ideologies are also part of the Australian experience with immigrant groups (see Callen, 1983).

subsequently modified after the American revolution. The founders of the United States, men such as Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin, believed that maintaining the institutions and customs of the newly founded United States was essential for national unity. John Quincy Adams, U.S. Secretary of State in 1818 stated:

They (immigrants to America) ... if they cannot accommodate themselves to the character, moral, political and physical of this country with all its compensating balances of good and evil, the Atlantic is always open to them to return to the land of their nativity and their fathers.... They must cast off the European skin, never to resume it. They must look forward to their posterity rather than backward to their ancestors.

(Quoted in Gordon 1964: 94.)

Thus immigrants from the time of the American Revolution up to the mid 19th century were expected to relinquish all ties with their native country and adopt the ways of the U.S.

The institution which, more than any other, was entrusted with expediting this acculturation process was the educational system. In 1909 a prominent American educator, E.P. Cubberly, saw the following as the task of the American educational system:

Our task is to break up these groups or settlements, to assimilate and amalgamate these people (the immigrants) as a part of our American race, and to implant in their children, so far as can be done, the Anglo-Saxon conception of righteousness, law and order, and popular government, and to awaken in them a reverence for our democratic institutions and for those things in our national life which we as a people hold to be of abiding worth.

(Quoted in Gordon 1964: 98.)

During the time in which the anglo-conformity perspective was dominant, the U.S. was developing and expanding economically and geographically and Federal legislation regulating or limiting the influx of immigrants was minimal.

This open door policy began to change with the arrival of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe (the "new immigrants"), beginning the last quarter of the 19th century. The immigrant groups who had already settled in the U.S. -- those from northern and western Europe -- became increasingly concerned with the large influx of southern and eastern Europeans. This group was relatively poorer, of darker complexion, less educated and skilled, more rural, and less likely to speak English. The northern and western European immigrants were concerned that the new arrivals would not integrate into American society, as postulated by the anglo conformity model. Groups such as the American Protective Association and the "Know-Nothing" Party of the 1850s, as well as legislation in 1876 which allowed the states to place restrictions on immigration, were indicative of this concern. These developments also indicated that the pure anglo conformity ideology was being replaced with a different perspective, the melting pot ideology.

MELTING POT

The melting pot perspective, unlike the anglo conformity ideology, postulated a give-and-take process between immigrant culture and U.S. culture. According to this ideology, the net result is a culture containing a mixture of both immigrant culture and the preexisting U.S. culture. The melting pot ideology was more tolerant of the immigrants' native customs than the anglo conformity ideology.

During the latter part of the 19th century, ethnic diversity was not only gaining acceptance but was an unquestionable reality in many urban areas. Ethnic neighborhoods were becoming commonplace in areas like New York City, Boston, and Philadelphia.

The establishment of immigrant settlements did not go unnoticed by academics and intellectuals. Perhaps the most influential writing on this subject was that of Frederick Jackson Turner, later to become one of American's leading historians. In 1893, Turner put forth what was later referred to as the "frontier hypothesis." Briefly, Turner's thesis was that the frontier environment in the U.S. was a powerful agent of change. It served to "melt" immigrant culture with American culture, the net result being a new culture:

In the crucible of the frontier the immigrants were Americanized, liberated, and fused into a mixed race, English in neither nationality nor characteristics. The

process has gone on from the early days to our own...the tide of foreign immigration which has risen so steadily that it has made a composite American people whose amalgamation is destined to produce a new national stock. (Quoted in Gordon 1964:118.)

Even though the melting pot perspective was relatively less repressive than the anglo conformity ideology, there remained reluctance on the part of southern and eastern European immigrants to fully subscribe to the melting pot model. In theory, the end product of the merging of the immigrant and host culture was a culture that contained relatively equal portions of both cultures. In practice, some immigrant groups -- particularly those who aspired to move up socioeconomically -- realized that their native culture was not an accepted part of the dominant U.S. culture. These immigrants encountered discrimination based on cultural preference and often faced obstacles to social and economic mobility on the basis of nationality and race from the more acculturated and economically successful groups. This situation led to the development of a third ideological perspective, cultural pluralism.

CULTURAL PLURALISM

Cultural pluralism was a fact in American society before it became a dominant ideology. Ethnic settlements in the U.S. were established on a de facto basis in the early 1800. Cases in point were the ethnic neighborhoods scattered throughout the

cities of the nation. However, it was not until a decade or two prior to the First World War that cultural pluralism became an accepted ideology.

Briefly, cultural pluralism stipulated that immigrant groups became like the host society to some extent but also retained some of their cultural uniqueness. Immigrants would, for example, learn English, participate in the democratic political process, and send their children to public schools, thus enabling them to learn the "American" way of life. However, immigrants would also, for example, reside in ethnic neighborhoods, celebrate holidays and events unique to their country of origin, and maintain their own ethnic clubs and organizations. In short, the pluralist ideology maintained that the coexistence of an American culture and immigrant cultures was both possible and desirable.

Many factors gave rise to the pluralist ideology. One was that pluralism was becoming a fact in American society, given the overwhelming volume and diversity of immigration. Another was the negative and unanticipated consequences that emerged from the enforcement of the anglo conformity and melting pot ideologies. Social observers believed the overemphasis placed on the integration of immigrant groups into America at the expense of their native culture was leading to high incidences of mental illness, crime, interethnic conflicts, and other indicators of maladjustment. Furthermore, the "Americanization"

process as postulated by the anglo conformity and melting pot ideologies was viewed as a violation of fundamental American ideals and values such as democracy, individualism, and equality.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION AND IDEOLOGY

The two major ideological camps in the bilingualism controversy in the United States reflect two of these major ideologies -- the melting pot and the cultural pluralist. Each has a distinct view of the purposes and objectives of bilingual programs. These competing views exert considerable influence over policy decisions and program development and implementation.

The melting pot perspective is the ideological base for bilingual programs with "transitional" objectives. These programs seek to transfer immigrant or refugee students into non-bilingual classes as soon as they gain proficiency in English. No attempt is made to maintain nor enhance the native language. Non-English language is used in classroom instruction only to the extent necessary to help students keep up with their grade level in subject areas until their English skills are strong enough for them to transfer into "mainstream" instruction in English.

The cultural pluralism position is the ideological impetus behind bilingual programs with "maintenance" objectives. These programs are more accurately described as "bicultural" rather than "bilingual," since the emphasis is on sustaining and increasing competency in both the native language and English. Unlike transitional programs, participants in the maintenance program are kept in bilingual/bicultural classrooms after they achieve English language competency.

The extent to which particular bilingual programs emphasize transitional or maintenance goals greatly effects the outcome of the program's effort. This fact will become central to our discussion of the results of evaluative studies of bilingual education programs, in Section 3.6 of this paper.

3.4 HISPANICS AS WELL AS OTHER NON-ENGLISH SPEAKING GROUPS PARTICIPATE IN BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

In the U.S., bilingualism is often regarded as a "Hispanic" issue. The following factors contribute to this contention. First, Hispanics are the second largest minority group in the U.S., and the Spanish language is the most visible non-English language. Hispanics comprise 6.5 percent (or 14.6 million) of the U.S. population, and roughly 40 percent of all Hispanics (or 5.9 million) have some difficulty with English.

Second, among non-English speaking groups, Hispanics are the most politically active in bilingual issues. Organizations such as the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC), the Mexican American Legal Defense and Educational Fund (MALDEF), and the National Council of la Raza (NCLR) have actively lobbied for legislation that favors bilingual programs. And third, the efforts of these Hispanic organizations to institutionalize bilingual programs has received considerable news media coverage.

Census data reveal that among those who reside in households where a language other than English is spoken, persons who reside in homes where Spanish is the other language have the most difficulty with English. This pattern holds true for young children (ages 5 to 17) and for youths (18 years and over) alike, with the exception of those 18 year and older who reside in homes where Portuguese or Korean is the other language (see Table 2 in appendix).

We can get a better sense of the language needs of non-English speaking groups by looking at bilingual program enrollment. Data show that Hispanic, Asian Americans, and to a lesser extent American Indians, are the non-English language groups serviced by bilingual programs. Approximately 20 percent of Hispanic youth, 16 percent of Asian youth, and 5 percent of American Indian youth are enrolled in bilingual programs (see Table 3 in appendix). Although Hispanics comprise a substantial number of bilingual program enrollees

both absolutely (643,000) and relatively (20.2 percent), a substantial proportion of Asians (15.5 percent) and American Indians (5.2 percent) also participate in these programs.

A total of \$23 million was appropriated by the Refugee Act of 1980 to fund a Transition Program for Refugee Children for the 1980-1982 school year (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981). Indochinese youngsters are the major beneficiaries, since the school enrollment for this group is much greater than that of all other refugee youths combined. In fiscal year 1981, a total of 87,765 Indochinese youngsters were enrolled in elementary and secondary schools compared to 20,783 youngsters from all other refugee groups. In response to the marked increase in the enrollment of Indochinese refugee children in primary and secondary schools and in addition to the special transition program mentioned earlier in this paragraph, the Office of Bilingual Education provided approximately \$2.5 million for Indochinese language projects and curriculum development materials as part of the main bilingual education program (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1982).

Indochinese children have undergone traumatic experiences in their homeland as well as in refugee resettlement camps. Some have had to interrupt their schooling for long periods of time. As a consequence, these youngsters not only require

English language instruction but also remedial academic instruction as well as assistance in cultural adjustments. The following are typical accounts of the circumstances in schools in which Indochinese refugees are enrolled.

A bilingual education teacher in an elementary school in Chicago related the following about Indochinese refugee students in her classes:

"They're pretty sweet and I think they're still a bit frightened. We have to teach them where the bathroom is, how to eat, how to sit. Many of the kids are quite canny from living in the camps. They come to us at eight or nine years old, with no formal education and very little of what was their normal family. I saw a boy back into the bushes the other day. He didn't know enough to ask where the bathroom was." (Liff, 1980: 7).

The special needs of this refugee group is also evident in the following account by a principal in a public school in Staten Island, New York.

"We plan to take the children and spend a day in the community. We will familiarize them with certain aspects of our culture they may never have experienced. We have one program with the telephone company which teaches them how to use the phone. We are going to end up on buses, in supermarkets -- any experience that these kids probably will be involved in. So when they leave us, it will not be overwhelming for them." (Liff, 1980:7).

To meet the special needs of Indochinese refugees, organizations like the Indochina Refugee Action Center (IRAC) in Washington, D.C. have developed a host of program components and models to assist government officials and professionals,

such as bilingual education teachers, to deliver services to these refugees (Indochina Refugee Action Center, 1981a, 1981b, and 1981c). With respect to bilingual education, IRAC proposes that "survival bilingual instruction" for adults and extensive English language instruction for refugee children be coupled with remedial education in academic subjects.¹⁹

3.5 THERE IS NO STANDARDIZED MODEL OF BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

Despite voluminous legislation enacted to ensure the equality of educational opportunity for non-English speaking children, none of the laws passed by the Congress or subsequent administrative regulations implementing these laws are specific in defining "limited English-speaking ability" and the "appropriate action" necessary to meet the needs of non-English speaking children.²⁰ As a result, there is much controversy

¹⁹ Bilingual programs made available to Indochinese refugee adults in refugee camps taught "survival English." The objective of these programs was to teach non-English speaking adults oral English language skills--not reading and writing. Many programs consisted of only 16 lessons. In many cases, participants in these programs received more extensive language instruction coupled with occupational training once they were resettled in U.S. communities. For accounts on these types of bilingual programs see Kelly, (1978) and Kleinmann and Daniel, (1981).

²⁰ See Ross, 1978; Thernstrom, 1980; and Durante, 1982 for specific legislation.

over what is a "bilingual program" and specific criteria for defining "limited English-speaking ability." By and large, states and local school districts design bilingual programs and establish criteria for eligibility. Bilingual programs, therefore, may vary in (a) the amount of time devoted to the use of native and English language, (b) the teaching techniques employed by the instructors, (c) the guidelines for admitting students into the programs, (d) the standards used to evaluate progress and to decide when students should be transferred from the program to "mainstream" classrooms, (e) the extent to which bilingual program children are segregated from those not enrolled in the program, and (f) class size and the ability mix of the students. This is a selective list of program characteristics that are generally examined in evaluation studies. Other factors that are more difficult to quantify and which also contribute to the heterogeneity of bilingual programs are: (a) the ideological orientation (e.g., melting pot versus cultural pluralism) of the instructors, school officials, and students' parents; (b) the influence that immigrant culture has on the students (for example, do Indochinese students differ from Mexican students in their attitudes toward learning English?); and (c) the amount of interest in the program expressed by the parents, as well as the degree of parental involvement in the programs.

Generally speaking, the principal objective of transitional type programs is to enable non-English-speaking students to adjust to school and master academic subjects while making as rapid a transition as possible to the "mainstream" of school instruction in English. Transitional programs make no concerted effort to enhance nor maintain non-English language skills. Languages other than English are used only to the extent necessary to help those in the program adjust as well as keep up with their peers in non-bilingual classes. These programs also tend to be academically compensatory, and transitional programs typically offers academic instruction tailored specifically to socioeconomically deprived students from non-English speaking environments. As a whole, programs funded under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1968 have transitional objectives as their goals.

Maintenance Bilingual Program divide into several subtypes of programs, each with its own goals and objectives. Monoliterate bilingual programs give priority to limited literacy in the native tongue and full literacy in the host language. These programs encourage the development of aural-oral skills of the native tongue on the one hand and full literacy skills of the English language on the other. The native language is used as a link between the home and the school. The objective is to ease the adjustment of the immigrant or refugee youth to the school. Partial biliterate bilingual programs seek to develop fluency in both the native tongue and English, but literacy in

the former is restricted to subject areas that are related to the immigrant group's cultural heritage. Such programs, for example, offer instruction in the history and literature of the immigrant. Clearly these programs provide language maintenance coupled with cultural maintenance -- efforts that are in line with the cultural pluralist ideology. However, they do not view native language maintenance as a serious vehicle for socio-economic mobility. These programs seek to preserve the socio-linguistic heritage of the immigrant via literature and history but do not perceive competency in a second language as an edge for entry into occupations.

Finally full biliterate bilingual programs seek to develop both native and English language skills in all subject areas. In these programs the use of the native language is not limited to literature and history but rather expanded to include areas such as science, business, and other "non-cultural" subject areas. The intent of such programs is to produce a fully bilingual individual, one that can think and communicate in either of two languages independently. Of all maintenance bilingual programs, full biliterate programs are the most controversial and politically sensitive. These programs place a strong emphasis on group maintenance and as a consequence bring out the issue of separatism.²¹

²¹ See Rafferty (1981); Time September 8, 1980; and Time April 9, 1982 for discussion of the separatist issue associated with bilingual education.

3.6 ASSESSMENT OF BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

A recent national evaluative study of bilingual programs conducted under Title VII of the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1968 was conducted by the American Institutes for Research (AIR). The objectives of the AIR evaluation was to: (a) determine the impact of Title VII programs on elementary school students in Spanish/English bilingual classes, (b) assess the academic progress of students in bilingual classes, (c) delineate program components that contributed to student achievement, and (d) determine the dollar cost per student in Title VII programs.²² The AIR evaluation sought to accomplish these objectives by comparing the performance (in terms of English language knowledge, math test scores, reading comprehension test scores, and other quantitative criteria) of students enrolled in Title VII bilingual programs with those of comparable students not in such programs.

²² Our discussion of the AIR study is based on the fourth and final report of this investigation. For more information see the report by the principal investigator of the AIR study, Danoff (1978). For general reviews and comments on the AIR evaluation see Troike (1979), Thernstrom (1980), Larson (1982), and Otheguy (1982) among others.

The findings of the AIR evaluation can be summarized under four major headings: (1) program objectives, (2) student achievement and attitudes, (3) classroom procedures/ environment and achievement, and (4) teaching staff and academic performance.

1. Program Objectives: The objectives of the programs were more "maintenance" oriented than "transitional" oriented.

On the basis of interviews with teaching staff and program directors, AIR evaluators found that the programs surveyed operated more in line with maintenance goals than with transitional goals. One indication of this situation is that, when asked what action is taken when Spanish-speaking students become proficient in English, 86 percent of the program directors surveyed replied that such students remain in the bilingual program.

2. Student Achievement and Attitudes: English reading and mathematics test scores of bilingual program participants were not significantly different from what they would have been had these students not participated in the programs. While there were some academic gains by program participants, across-grade comparisons revealed that enrollees did not make consistent and significant scholastic gains compared to a control group. More specifically, English test scores of bilingual program participants were below that of their counterparts in non-bilingual programs. With respect to achievement in mathematics, program

participants were at approximately the same level as non-participants. However, scores in Spanish reading tests increased between the pretest and posttest periods compared to a controled group. Student's attitudes toward school were not affected by program participation. Both those in and out of bilingual classes had neither strong positive nor strong negative attitudes toward school.

3. Classroom Procedures/Environment and Achievement:

Grouping of students improved academic performance. Grouping--the rearranging of students within classrooms into small subgroups for instructional purposes -- was positively related to gains in English language test scores. Similarly math scores decreased with the use of whole-class instruction, but when students were divided into instructional groupings, math scores improved. The extent to which the use of Spanish was permitted in math classes was unrelated to math performance. Regrouping was also positively related to test results in Spanish as a second language. That is, students who were instructed in small groups within a given classroom scored higher on Spanish language tests than those instructed in ungrouped classroom settings. Spanish language test results also improved with the increase in average number of hours per week devoted to Spanish language instruction. The proportion of Hispanic students relative to non-Hispanic students in classrooms had no effect (positive nor negative) on academic performance.

4. Teaching Staff and Academic Performance: Teacher and teacher aide characteristics have little relationship to student's scholastic gains. The relationships between teacher and teacher aide characteristics was not consistent across grade levels. Teaching staff attributes were positively associated with student outcome for one grade level and negatively related to student performance in another grade level. The evaluators who conducted the AIR study concluded that, overall, teaching qualifications (measured in terms of the extent and quality of academic training, teaching experience), qualifications related to bilingual teaching (e.g., college training in bilingual education, etc.), and degree of teacher bilinguality (i.e., second language proficiency of the teacher) have little relationship to student academic performance and attitudes toward school.

These findings reported in the AIR evaluation should be interpreted with the following caveats in mind: (1) This was a national assessment investigation of Title VII bilingual programs. Data from individual bilingual programs throughout the U.S. (some of which are funded under Title VII) do not universally support the conclusions of the AIR study. In addition, bilingual programs funded by the federal government under other non-Title VII legislation were not included in the evaluation. We will discuss selected studies of this sort below. (2) The AIR project took the Federal Government's aim stated in Title VII legislation (i.e., transitional objectives)

at face value and used it as a major criterion by which to determine program effectiveness. Federal officials in the Department of Education admit that, for the most part, Title VII programs do not actively pursue the transitional objectives intended by the Bilingual Education Act of 1968. These officials concede that the wording of this legislation is non-specific and subject to the interpretation of program sponsors at the state and local levels. (3) Given the high degree of diversity among bilingual programs, findings from aggregate program data should be interpreted with caution. They are based on averages of heterogeneous mix of a programs. Given the findings of the evaluation and reallocation of resources in light of these findings, future programs might well be able to operate as well as the best of these programs, rather than only as well as the average. (4) The AIR assessment examined programs that were in operation for two to three years. Most experts in the field agree that the real payoff to bilingual programs does not occur until the fifth or sixth year (for example, see Seidner, 1982). (5) Finally, the AIR survey only assessed the impact of bilingual programs on Spanish-speaking students; students from other non-English language environments (e.g., Indochinese) were not considered. The effectiveness of bilingual program services on these latter groups cannot be directly determined from the AIR evaluation.

As noted above, data from specific bilingual programs do not universally support the AIR findings. A case in point is a recent evaluation of bilingual education in Illinois which showed that the transitional programs in that state are working. The State of Illinois has actively supported bilingual programs since 1970. At the present time, this state provides bilingual instruction in over 30 languages to approximately 40,000 youngsters of limited-English proficiency (LEP).

The Illinois State Government commissioned an evaluation study to determine if students in bilingual programs were (a) learning English, and (b) "transitioning" out of bilingual programs into all-English classes.²³ These are basically the same concerns addressed by the AIR study. However, the Illinois evaluation arrived at quite different conclusions. Specifically, the Illinois researchers found that the bilingual programs were meeting their transitional objectives. Program participants were learning English, and between 17 and 24 percent were exiting the programs each year.

One major finding of the AIR evaluation was that students who received bilingual instruction in small groups made greater scholastic strides than youngsters who were taught in large

²³ The Illinois evaluation is reported by Medina-Seidner (1982: 165-167).

classroom environments. A more recent evaluative study by McConnell collaborates this finding.²⁴

The McConnell study assesses the effectiveness of a national research and demonstration program of Individualized Bilingual Instruction (IBI). This program was designed to meet the needs of non-English speaking children in migrant farm worker families in Washington state and in a Texas border community. Approximately 900 such children from preschool through third grade participated in the program during a nine year period -- 1971 through 1980. The evaluation is based on a followup survey of a sample of children in grades four through six. All youngsters in this survey were Spanish-speaking children in migrant farm families. A comparison group consisted of youngsters in the same grades from neighboring schools. Tests on eight different measures of program effectiveness (e.g., standardized tests in math, English, vocabulary, Spanish, etc.) were administered to all students.

The findings of the IBI evaluation can be summarized under three major headings: (1) academic subjects results, (2) vocabulary development and Spanish/English language skills, and (3) followup results.

²⁴ Our discussion of the McConnell evaluation is taken from a report of the findings published in National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education (1982).

1. Academic Subject Results: Participants outperformed non-participants in math and reading tests. The scholastic advantage of children who attended the IBI program over those who had not attended the program increased with each additional period of program participation. More specifically, by the time youngsters had been in the IBI program for three or more years, their average math scores (at every grade level) surpassed the national norm. With respect to English reading skills, those who attended the IBI program for three or more years scored between the 45th and 68th percentile, compared to the non-participants who scored considerably less -- below the 10th percentile.

2. Vocabulary Development and Spanish/English Language Results: Program participants were more bilingual than non-participants. Both participants whose home language was Spanish (78 percent of the sample) and those whose primary language was English (22 percent of the sample) scored higher than non-participants in both English and Spanish tests. After three years in the IBI program most youngsters were equally proficient in both English and Spanish.

3. Followup Results: Children who were no longer in the IBI program continued to make academic gains. Youngsters in grades four through six who had participated in the IBI program at the pre-school and early elementary school level scored higher than the control group in vocabulary, math, English, Spanish, and reading/spelling standardized tests.

Three features of the IBI evaluation stand out. First, individual bilingual instruction is not only conducive to improved academic performance but it is also a good native language maintenance strategy. Not only were IBI participants learning English, but they were also acquiring proficiency in Spanish. Second, the marked improvement in student performance after each additional period of program participation suggests that the benefits of the IBI program are cumulative. This accrual effect did not surface in the AIR study since the programs in that investigation were in operation only between two and three years. The IBI evaluation supports the contention of experts who argue that the benefits of bilingual programs do not show up until the fifth or sixth year. Thirdly, the follow-up results are encouraging. It showed that participants who had exited the IBI program continued to make academic gains. This suggests that the program's effect is cumulative and long lasting.

4. WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Work experience has been a major component of American youth employment development programs since subsidized employment for young people was implemented on a large scale through the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. In 1974, 70 percent of manpower program participants under 22 and 90 percent under 19 years of age were enrolled in work experience programs. After the Youth Employment and Development Projects Act (YEDPA) was passed in 1977 the number of youths in work experience programs increased markedly.

In general, these programs provide youths with subsidized employment experience but little if any other employment services. The aim is to expose young people to the world-of-work, help them to cultivate good work habits, and provide them with modest incomes. These programs operate within the government sector (typically local governments) or the non-profit sector; in either case, the federal government role is largely one of covering program costs (both youth wage costs and administering agencies administrative costs). The employment offered by these programs is typically on community projects that entail renovation and construction of public buildings, maintenance of public recreation areas, service as social services aides or as unskilled physical or clerical

employees, and other labor intensive community work. In many cases, the community services provided by these projects would not be accomplished in the absence of the work experience programs. Thus ideally, these work experience efforts benefit youths on the one hand, and local communities on the other.

If long range employability enhancement is the major objective of a government initiative, then the American record suggests that work experience programs are not high priority strategies for youth. If, on the other hand, short-term employment and modest income redistribution are the prime objectives, then work experience programs are noteworthy manpower strategies. Below we discuss several programs which exemplify this general strategy.

4.1 NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) was established under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and was the first large scale youth program to offer subsidized work experience. The goals of this program were not unlike those of more recent work experience programs for youth (discussed below). The objectives of NYC, whether explicitly or implicitly stated, were to provide economically disadvantaged youths with (a) work experience, (b) remedial education, (c) economic incentives--through part-time and summer jobs--to stay in school or return to school, and

(d) limited job training. The program was also intended to redistribute income and reduce juvenile delinquency.

NYC contained three major components. The first was the in-school program designed to provide part-time work experience to youths who were attending school. The expectation was these youths would be more likely to remain in school to complete their secondary education if they were furnished with a job that gave them a modest income. The second component -- the summer jobs program -- was intended to make summer jobs available to youths. Again, aside from the work experience derived from this activity, the expectation was that program participants would return to secondary school at summer's end. The out-of-school program, the last component of NYC, was targeted at young people who were not in school (mostly high school dropouts), and special attention was devoted to occupational training and the encouragement of returning to school.

Table 7 summarizes selected characteristics of both in-school and out-of-school participants for fiscal year 1974. We see that, in general, males were more likely to enroll in NYC than females. In-school program enrollees tended to be younger than out-of-school participants. A higher proportion of Hispanics, particularly Puerto Ricans, were enrolled in the out-of-school program than in the in-school program. As expected, in-school enrollees had more years of schooling than those in

the out-of-school program. Lastly, another noteworthy characteristic noted in Table 7 is that virtually all participants were economically disadvantaged, with a substantial proportion receiving public assistance.

NYC has been evaluated by numerous investigators. The findings are mixed, with most of the evidence showing that the program fell short of its stated goals.²⁵

On the negative side, NYC had generally unimpressive results when it came to preventing youths from dropping out of school and enhancing their employability. With respect to the in-school program, the research overwhelmingly shows that the program had no positive impact on keeping youths in school. The evidence regarding employment and earnings is mixed. Some studies report that program participation had no appreciable impact on labor market performance; within these overall results, some studies emphasize that males generally do better than females and that blacks tend to benefit more than whites. The evidence also shows that NYC had no significant impact on scholastic performance, work attitude, and occupational aspirations.

²⁵ We draw upon the following in our discussion of NYC: Somers and Stromsdorfer, 1970; Borus, Brennan, and Rosen, 1970; Mangum and Walsh, 1980; and Stromsdorfer, 1980.

The verdict on the out-of-school program is also not encouraging. The out-of-school program went through two major phases, the later of which sought to enlist youths that were in their early teens and place more emphasis on employability development. Despite this modification, the later phase was no more effective the earlier one in improving the employability of its participants. One study which compared these two programs concluded: "...the redesigned NYC was not significantly more effective in improving the employability of its enrollees than (its) predecessor....Indeed....study results suggested that the redesigned effort may have been less effective." (Quoted by Mangum and Walsh, 1980: 58.)

The major factor cited for this unfavorable outcome was that the program limited enrollment to 16 and 17 year old school dropouts. This served to segregate these youths from less "troubled" youths. In so doing, the program violated a fairly well established principle in human relations, namely, that the segregation of any group on the basis of some "negative" attribute is likely to lead to low self-evaluation within the segregated group and suspicion and hostility toward the segregated group by the general population. One can easily visualize a progress in which NYC participants developed low self esteem, the staff began to question the effectiveness of the program, and prospective employers were reluctant to hire program participants.

On a more positive note, the research shows that NYC provided youth with several noteworthy services and opportunities. For one, the program acted as what evaluators refer to as an "aging vat." That is, NYC kept young people occupied with some form of work activity while they made the transition from adolescence into adulthood. During this difficult time, the program -- like other work experience youth programs discussed below -- seemed to keep young people occupied and out of trouble. The solid evidence on this effect is, however, somewhat mixed. Although some research reports that the program did not reduce juvenile crime, the evidence is not conclusive.

Lastly, NYC was regarded as a fairly useful program for redistributing income. Even though this was not an explicitly acknowledged objective, most evaluators agree that income maintenance and redistribution was a major program impact.

Williamson and Associates (1975) compared eleven manpower strategies and rated these programs along 26 dimensions ranging from macro-level impacts such as income distribution to micro-level impacts such as the extent to which individual needs are met. A note of caution is needed in interpreting Williamson's findings. NYC was rated in relation to ten other manpower

programs with different objectives and client groups.²⁶ Some of the major findings of Williamson's study can be summarized as follows:

(a) Macro-level impacts: NYC received a high rating for its ability to distribute income and other goods and services to the poor. Approximately \$1 billion per year reached the poor as a result of the program. However, the program was judged less effective during times of economic recession. This suggests that subsidized work experience strategies for youths are vulnerable to fluctuations in the economy.

(b) Micro-level impacts: The program's impact on the individual was mixed. On the one hand, NYC had very little impact on the participant's self concept, while on the other hand, the program was successful in encouraging economic self sufficiency. This is not surprising, given the fact that NYC relied more on work experience rather than on skill training or "world-of-work" exposure.

(c) Program operations: Overall, NYC operations did not receive a good rating. Creaming--selecting those who are most likely to do well--was one of the major deficiencies in the program's administration. Unresponsiveness to participant needs by staff members was another administrative shortcoming.

²⁶ This heterogeneity among programs has an influence on the ratings. For example, a program that emphasized institutional training may score low on work experience, while a program that has work experience as its major component will receive a high rating.

The other work-experience programs that will be discussed in this section were, to a large extent, patterned after NYC. Consequently, the observations we noted with respect to NYC are, by and large, applicable to the post NYC youth work-experience strategies. For instance, the "aging vat" observation and the income redistribution impact are common features of these programs. We will, therefore, restrict our presentation of post NYC programs to their distinctive program features and evaluations.

4.2 YOUTH INCENTIVE ENTITLEMENT PILOT PROJECTS

The youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP) was one of the four programs authorized by the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act (YEDPA) of 1977.²⁷

YIEPP provided guaranteed subsidized jobs to economically disadvantaged young people aged 16-19 who were in school or willing to return to school. The objective of this program was to encourage young people to graduate from high school through a combination of guaranteed employment and planned educational programs. The expectation was that after exiting the program youths would be better prepared to enter the workforce or to continue their education.

²⁷ The four youth programs authorized by YEDPA were: the Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP); the Youth Employment and Training Programs (YETP); and Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC); and the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP).

YIEPP had two features that distinguished it from earlier programs. First, participants were required to meet both academic and job performance standards. Those who did not meet those standards were terminated from the program. By March 1979, 4 percent of enrollees were let go because of inadequate scholastic performance, and 16 percent were terminated for not meeting job related standards. (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1979.)

The second notable feature of YIEPP was the heterogeneity of its participants relative to earlier programs of this type. Enrollment in YIEPP was not limited to those that were prone to drop out of school or to suffer severe employment problems. In March 1979, 9 percent of all enrollees were school dropouts, and by the end of 1979 approximately 13 percent of all participants were in this category. Although potential enrollees had to meet income and geographic eligibility standards, not all had below average academic records.

The racial and ethnic composition of young people in the program varied according to project site. Black youths were overrepresented all sites. On the average, this group comprised 70 to 75 percent of all participants, whites constituted 16 to 18 percent of all enrollees, and the Hispanic representation fluctuated between 8 and 12 percent. All youths were economically disadvantaged, with slightly over 55 percent receiving some form of public assistance. With respect to

other socioeconomic indicators, 56 percent resided in female-headed households, and the mean years of parental education was 9.4 for whites, 9.0 for blacks, and 8.4 for Hispanics (Mandel and Solnick, 1979; and Diaz et al., 1980).

Findings from early YIEPP impact studies were encouraging. One such study compared four demonstration sites with four control sites in the spring of 1978 (Mandel and Slonick, 1979). The interim report showed that dropout rates decreased and return-to-school rates increased in demonstration sites compared to control sites. Within demonstration sites younger participants (age 16 and 17) had lower dropout rates and higher return-to-school rates than older participants (age 18 and 19).

The findings from more recent reports are more mixed. On the one hand, YIEPP projects were fairly successful in attracting eligible youths. In the first year of operation the program enrolled approximately 40 percent of eligibles. On the other hand, the drawing power of the program with respect to older, out-of-school youths proved less. This latter group comprised about 10 percent of all enrollees. One reason was that YIEPP projects relied on public schools to recruit participants. When youths discontinue with their education their contact with the schools is minimal. Out-of-school youths were therefore not reached by the public schools. This finding suggests that other community institutions with relatively more contact with out-of-school youngsters might be a more effective way to reach this hard to employ group.

Another reason why YIEPP was not able to recruit out-of-school youths was that most program sites did not offer alternative educational programs. As stated in one report:

"In the Entitlement, which requires that youth attend an approved school in order to be employed, it has been learned that this policy will not draw many out-of-school youths unless the range of 'approved' schools is expanded to include so-called alternative schools." (Butler and Parker, 1980:45.)

A major obstacle to the alternative school approach was the general lack of enthusiasm among school officials and project directors to experiment with varied educational approaches.

With respect to jobs, program sites in rural areas had relatively more difficulty in finding jobs for participants than projects situated in more populated urban centers. In general, however, the program was successful in locating employers that were willing to hire program participants. In fact, about 50 percent of all work sponsors were from the private sector -- usually small firms hiring one or two youths.

Final reports assessing post-program impacts have not been completed; however interim reports suggest that work experience while in the program may have a greater impact on post-program performance than the educational gains accrued as a result of program participation. This is not surprising given the relatively small proportion of youths that were enticed to remain or return to school because of the Entitlement.

4.3 YOUNG ADULT CONSERVATION CORPS

The Young Adult Conservation Corps (YACC) was a public sector work experience program for out-of-school and unemployed youths aged 16 to 23. The program offered young people the opportunity to do conservation work on government owned lands and waters. Like most such programs, YACC was not only intended to address the skill development and employment problems of out-of-work young people but also accomplish work on public lands that would otherwise not be done in absence of the program.

YACC had both residential and nonresidential projects. Enrollees in residential projects paid for their food and lodging, those working on nonresidential projects used payroll deductions to cover transportation expenses to and from their work sites. Youths were paid the U.S. statutory minimum wage (\$3.85 per hour in 1983); those who were assigned more responsibility, such as leading a work crew, were paid slightly higher wages. After working on projects for 12 months workers were assisted with finding other employment.

YACC was generally judged not an effective program. It was too costly to run. It was unable to reach minority and poor youths, and it had the worst post-program placement record of all federally operated youth programs. The average cost per enrollee was \$12,100 per year. In fiscal year 1981, 65 percent

of YACC's enrollees were white, 67 percent had at least a high school diploma, only 39 percent were economically dissadvantaged, and less than 20 percent were minorities. YACC was terminated at the end of fiscal year 1981.

4.4 YOUTH COMMUNITY CONSERVATION AND IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS

The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Projects (YCCIP) is another public sector work experience program initially authorized by YEDPA. This program provided unemployed youth aged 16-19 with government subsidized land conservation and community improvement jobs. Preference was given to out-of-school youths with severe employment problems. Participation was limited to 12 months at which time enrollees were assisted in finding unsubsidized jobs or in persuing further training in another manpower programs. The typical job entailed land conservation and community maintance work that would otherwise not be accomplished in absense of the program. Repair and maintenance of public buildings, weatherization of low income homes, and conservation activities in public parks were typical projects.

As displayed in table 8, males were over represented in YCIPP. About 75 percent of all enrollees were males, approximately 60 percent were high school dropouts, and 86 percent were economically dissadvantaged. Whites comprised

47.5 percent of all participants, black 33.7 percent, and Hispanics 14.6 percent. Table 9 shows that virtually all program activities consisted of work experience.

The Corporation for Public/Private Ventures (CPPV), a nonprofit corporation, ran a major demonstration project -- Ventures in Community Improvement (VICI) -- to replicate and evaluate exemplary community improvement youth projects. (Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1980). YCCIP projects throughout the United States were selected for evaluation by CPPV.

The CPPV evaluation entailed comparisons of VICI replication projects, YCCIP projects, and control groups -- VICI eligibles placed on waiting lists. Overall, the evaluation revealed that both YCCIP and VICI youths did better than control groups. When compared to controls, YCCIP and VICI youths had higher post program wages, higher placement rates in unsubsidized jobs, and more success in entering union apprenticeship position.

Participants in VICI projects were provided with more supervision and training than those in regular YCCIP projects. The CPPV study found notable differences between the enrollees in these two projects. When VICI and YCCIP participants were compared, VICI enrollees had markedly higher hourly wages and were more likely to be employed in jobs that were related to their training. These findings suggest that work experience is more beneficial when supplemented with training and supervision.

4.5 SUMMER YOUTH PROGRAMS

Summer employment programs for youths have been existence under various names since the 1960s. These projects provide short-term labor intensive work employment for economically disadvantaged youth (aged 14 to 21). The typical summer program runs nine to ten weeks during the summer months and provides 25 to 30 hours of work per week. The average participant earns between \$700 to \$800 for the summer.

Since the summer programs began in 1965 about 8.5 million youths have passed through this experience. During the past 3 years an average of 800,000 youth per year took part in these projects. Minorities are well represented in summer programs. As noted in Table 11, minority group participation run over 65 percent.

Summer programs have a substantial impact on youth employment during the summer months. In the summer of 1978 an estimated two out of five jobs held by nonwhites aged 14-19 were summer program jobs. Some reports suggest that about 60 to 75 percent of all employment growth among poverty area youth is due to jobs provided by the summer programs (Taggart, 1979).

Although it is not always explicitly stated, summer projects have traditionally been intended to reduce social tensions by providing poor youth with summer jobs to keep them occupied and out of trouble and at the same time enabling these young people to realize modest wages.

Throughout the years summer youth programs have been criticized on numerous counts. The most often voiced charges against these programs include: (a) poor quality work experience -- jobs do not provide youths with challenge or with opportunities to learn useful skills; (b) poor program management and monitoring -- some program staff and directors do not exert sufficient enrollee discipline and also generally mismanage projects; (c) lack of attention to special groups -- although minorities were well represented, other high risk groups such as delinquents, former drug users, and the handicapped are not reached by the programs; and (d) inadequate linkages with other programs and local institutions -- summer programs not cultivating linkages with year-round manpower programs and other structures that can complement program services, such as public schools and labor unions.

Evaluative findings are mixed. A General Accounting Office (GAO) study reported that mismanagement was one of the most serious shortcomings of summer youth programs. Drawing on the GAO findings, Warren J. Magnuson, a powerful Democratic Senator stated the following in a Congressional appropriations hearing "It appears from the information we have received from GAO that thousands of disadvantaged youth -- over half of the one million enrollees -- did not receive any meaningful work experience." (Quoted in Taggart, 1979:2). On the other hand, the GAO report has been criticized for not being representative of

summer youth programs in general. Other investigations acknowledge that some summer projects suffer from the deficiencies reported in the GAO evaluation, but add that on balance, the programs are fairly successful given their nature and objectives. For example, case studies compiled by the federal Office of Youth Programs (OYP) asserted that between 84 and 94 percent of summer projects provided enrollees with useful work (Taggart, 1979).

The more recent summer projects under YEDPA have attempted to address the criticisms noted above by adding services such as job counseling, training and job placement. These projects are commonly referred to as "enriched projects" to distinguish them from the "basic projects" which offer mainly work experience. Interim reports of the enriched projects suggest that these programs have a positive impact on school enrollment and employment rates (Butler and Porter, 1980).

There is a policy tradeoff to consider when comparing enriched with basic projects. On the one hand, successful enriched programs have attractive features such as "quality" work experience. On the other hand, these programs are more costly to run than basic programs. One reported noted:

...the "success" rate with which enriched projects fulfill their objectives is less than that of projects which are more pedestrian in their goals. More youths are employed per dollar in the less ambitious projects. Productivity per dollar of youth wages may be different than productivity per dollar of program cost because of the high overhead costs related to enrichment. (Corporation for Public/Private Ventures, 1980:i).

However, productivity/cost considerations aside, enriched projects yield more positive results than basic projects in terms of participant benefits such as job placement and entrance into apprenticeships.

4.6 SUPPORTED WORK

"Supported work" is an experimental approach to work experience which modifies the initial work environment to provide additional counseling, close supervision, and reduced productivity expectations and work stress. These special modifications are then decreased over time, to transition the worker gradually to a normal work situation. During the late 1970s, a large-scale formal experiment was tried in the United States, applying this approach to a variety of hard-to-employ workers, including minority and disadvantaged youth.

One of the most recent and comprehensive evaluations of these supported work programs found that among all target groups experimented with, youth are the least to benefit from supported work activities. This report monitored the performance of four target groups -- young school dropouts, ex-addicts, ex-offenders, and AFDC recipients -- in numerous demonstration program cities throughout the United States.²⁸

²⁸ AFDC recipients are single parent women with young children who are receiving public assistance through a program called Aid to Families with Dependent Children.

After extensive cost/benefit analyses and intergroup comparisons, the authors of the evaluation stated:

Thus, we conclude that, based on the measured benefits and costs, the benefits from Supported Work do not outweigh the costs for the youth target group. Benefits fell short of costs from both the social and nonparticipant perspectives; the net benefits for participants was positive, but only as a result of their earnings while in Supported Work.
(Kemper, Long, and Thorton, 1981: 152.)

Another evaluative study which focused exclusively on young school dropouts reached the same conclusion. The report stated:

The general conclusion from this study are that the availability of Supported Work job had short-term impacts on employment and, consequently, on dependence on public assistance, but that the program does not appear to have met its central objective of mitigating the long-run employment problems of this disadvantaged segment of the youth population. (Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, 1980:1.)

The major findings of this report with respect to youth, can be summarized under three headings: cost/benefit findings, post program performance, and other impacts.

(a) Cost/Benefit Findings: In the short run, the benefits to enrollees derived from program participation exceeded the costs; but in the long run, and from a broader social perspective, program benefits did not outweigh the total costs. Specifically, during the first 27 months, in-program earnings of youth participants totalled about \$3,600 per enrollee. This figure was \$1,800 above their costs, however, from the standpoint of social costs and benefits, the social cost of program

participation totalled \$5,000, while the social benefit from program participation was estimated at \$3,400 per participant.

(b) Post Program Performance: Youth showed increased earnings during the first nine months in supported work programs. This effect, however, was largely due to wages derived from program participation. In the long run, 19 to 27 months, the earnings benefits derived by youths averaged a total of \$38 per participant.

(c) Other Impacts: These include non-pecuniary impacts such as reduction in crime rates and improved health status. There was no conclusive evidence that program participation reduced criminal behavior or drug use among enrollees. The findings also showed that program participation had no significant effect on the health status of young enrollees. On a more positive note, supported work programs provided many youth who would otherwise be unemployed, with a job. Income redistribution is another unmeasured benefit. Although the total amount transferred was modest, these programs did transfer income to economically disadvantaged young people.

4.7 PUBLIC SERVICE EMPLOYMENT

Public Service Employment (PSE) is the name of yet another version of the general idea of offering work opportunities in the public sector. This particular program was authorized by the Federal Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) and was designed to operate both against structural unemployment among the hard-to-employ as well as cyclical unemployment in recessionary times of high unemployment. Work opportunities for youths were part of PSE. In this section, we will examine the participation of youth in the PSE program, address the major policy issues associated with these programs, and review evaluative research on PSE programs.

With respect to young people, public service employment was intended to accomplish one or more of the following: reduce school attrition rates, provide work experience, provide information about the world or work, reduce the incidence of anti-social behavior, and benefit local communities through public works projects. We have discussed these objectives and components of PSE in prior sections. Our focus now is on the PSE programs that were not specifically targeted at youth but which had minority youth as participants. The participation rate of individuals under 22 years of age in the title VI (countercyclical) PSE programs hovered around the 20 percent range, reaching a high of 24.4 percent in fiscal year 1981, the year that title VI programs were terminated.

PSE programs, particularly as originally implemented in the mid 1970s were critized on numerous counts. The most common criticisms of these programs are: (a) creaming -- selecting program participants that are most likely to find jobs after exiting the program; (b) substitution -- the use of government funds to support work that would be financed by other sources in the absence of government support funds; (c) program abuse -- mismanagement, and in some instances fraud, by those operating the programs; (d) high PSE wages -- the argument is that participant wages are high and hence contributes to substitution and provide no incentive to enrollees to seek unsubsidized jobs; (e) unrestricted program time -- PSE programs are ideally "transitional" strategies, where participants are expected to find unsubsidized employment once they have acquired the needed experience; however, some programs do not pose strict time limits on program participation; and (f) lack of training component -- PSE programs are mainly "make-work" efforts rather than training programs; that is, enrollees receive little or no skill-enhancing training. Finally, the efficiency of many PSE projects in yielding tangible benefits for local communities by way of renovation of public buildings and conservation of public land has also been questioned. Some studies conclude that the services provided by youths in PSE projects could be more cost effective if furnished by alternative suppliers. One study noted that youths in PSE work were 58 percent as productive as alternative suppliers (Zimmerman, 1980).

When CETA was reauthorized in 1978, legislators attempted to address many of the foregoing criticisms. Among the reform sought were more targeting of services, stricter enforcement of eligibility criteria, and increased emphasis on training rather than work experience.

Mirengoff and Associates surveyed PSE projects 18 months after the reauthorization of CETA (Mirengoff et al., 1982). Their objective was to assess the extent to which the reforms put in place by the amended 1978 CETA legislation were effective in dealing with the shortcomings of PSE programs enumerated above. They found that, by and large, the legislative reforms were taking hold. The most important findings of the Mirengoff assessment are listed below.

(a) Targeting was improved: The most needy groups -- youth, women, minorities, and the economically disadvantaged -- were reached due to more stringent eligibility criteria. In 1978, 85 percent of PSE enrollees were economically disadvantaged; this figure increased to 92 percent in 1980.

(b) PSE participants were receiving more job training: PSE projects were assessing the employability of program participants and making referrals to other programs or agencies for training. The emphasis within the CETA program shifted from PSE type job experience to other CETA programs which provided employability development and training. In 1980, over 30 percent of CETA participants were receiving some form of

training or employability service -- e.g., job search assistance, orientation to the world-of-work, etc. Projects that emphasized training experienced higher post-program placement rates than those who did not.

(c) Measures to reduce creaming and substitution resulted in unanticipated consequences: The amended CETA legislation lowered the PSE maximum allowable yearly wage. The intended objective of this was twofold: first, lower wages were expected to discourage more qualified workers from taking PSE jobs thereby increasing the enrollment of those who are most in need of PSE; and second, it was hoped that local governments who were the employers of PSE enrollees would be discouraged from using PSE workers in place of regular workers, thereby reducing the substitution problem. The Mirengoff study found that, by and large, these objectives were met with some success. However, there were two major unanticipated policy tradeoffs. First, due to the reduction of PSE wages, the services provided to local communities by PSE projects were less useful than the work that had been supplied by pre 1978 projects. And second, the quality of the work experience made available to PSE workers declined. That is, enrollees were not getting the type of experience that would ease their transition into unsubsidized employment.

(d) The transitional objectives were not met: Overall, the percentage of PSE participants that entered unsubsidized jobs in 1978 was higher than those entering such jobs in 1980. Two countervailing forces shed some light into this finding. On the one hand, the amended legislation placed emphasis on job training and employability development; while on the other hand, the stricter eligibility criteria and lower wage levels attracted the least employable, and consequently these individuals were at a disadvantage when competing for jobs in the private sector. Apparently the new emphasis on training did not offset the lower employability levels of the incoming enrollees.

(e) PSE participants had higher earnings than non-participants, but there are qualifications: In general, PSE enrollees earned more than non-enrollees in the months after exiting the program. There are, however, several qualifications. First, it is estimated that some of the increment would have occurred without program participation. Second, the greatest gains were made by those who entered the programs with poor employment records; those who entered the programs with relatively good employment records gained the least from program participation.

5. OUT OF SCHOOL EMPLOYABILITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Employability development programs refer to a heterogeneous mix of services designed to (1) provide or upgrade employment-related skills through classroom vocational instruction or on-the-job training; (2) ameliorate educational deficiencies through remedial education instruction, secondary school completion certification, or incentives to remain in or return to school; and (3) guide young people in making educational and career decisions through counseling, workshops in job-seeking techniques, and job placement assistance. At the end of the last chapter, we saw the increasing emphasis over time on such activities, in preference to simple work experience programs, within the efforts funded by the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). In this chapter, we will discuss three of the most significant examples of such programs in the United States. These programs served some immigrant youth as part of their mandate to serve disadvantaged youth more generally; and they represent important models of service delivery to youth requiring special assistance in preparing for and entering the world of work.

5.1 JOB CORPS

The Job Corps was originally authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. A total of \$618 million was appropriated to this program for fiscal 1983.

Job Corps provides a very comprehensive range of employability development services -- vocational skills training, remedial education, residential support, health and nutritional care, and recreational activities -- to out of school socially and economically disadvantaged young men and women aged 14 through 21. The assumption underlying this program is that the "cycle of poverty" can be broken by removing economically and socially deprived young people from their impoverished surroundings, providing them with vocational skills training and instruction in basic educational skills, and simultaneously providing them with a host of supportive services. The expected outcome is improved life-time labor market performance.

Since its inception in 1965, Job Corps has recruited the most economically and socially deprived youths (see Table 10), those who seldom were reached by other manpower programs. Job Corps enrollment records reveal that (a) Enrollees come from households where the family income is below poverty. As displayed by Table 10, more than 90 percent come from such families. An average of 30 percent of the families receive some kind of public assistance. (b) Corps members tend to come

from broken homes. In the six months prior to enrollment, about 25 percent were living alone or with non-parent relatives, and fewer than 50 percent resided with both parents. (c) Participants have serious educational deficiencies. The majority are high school dropouts (86 percent of enrollees in 1978 and 86 percent in 1978). As expected, Corps members need remedial education. Youths with less than a sixth grade level reading ability comprised 50 percent of all enrollees in 1978.

(d) Males are overrepresented -- over 70 percent were males in 1978. Most participants also tend to be either white or black, with Hispanics comprising 10 percent of all enrollees. (e) Most Corps members had little or no employment experience prior to entering the program. Only one-third had worked for 20 or more hours per week for more than one month. Much of the work experience of those who held jobs before joining the program (64 percent) was in other manpower programs. And, (f) about two-fifths reported having had trouble with the law. Twenty-five percent had been convicted of a crime before entering the program.

Due to the comprehensiveness of its services, Job Corps is the most complex of all youth programs. In addition, during its 18 years in operation, the program has been modified in accordance with evaluative research findings and changes in the youth labor market. Nevertheless, Job Corps' commitment to its philosophy and its comprehensive approach has remained consistent. The services provided by Job Corps can be summarized under the following program components:

(A) Institutional Training: Institutional training is the core of this program. Two types of institutional training are provided--vocational skills instruction and remedial education.

Two methods of teaching a vocational skill are used. The first is a shop-type approach in which participants learn specific trades at Job Corps centers or vocational schools. In these settings, actual work-like environments are simulated to give students a sense of what will be expected from them in the real work world. The second method by which vocational training is furnished is through "hands-on" experience in actual work settings. Enrollees learn a trade by working in actual shops and factories. This type of instruction is normally provided in cooperation with local employers and labor unions.²⁹

The second institutional training component is remedial education. Job Corps furnishes remedial courses in reading, writing, and mathematics. The program also prepares high school dropouts to take the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) examination to provide credentials equivalent to the completion of secondary school.

²⁹ Job Corps is successful in soliciting the assistance of labor unions in supplying vocational training. Union-operated courses account for approximately 17 percent of the program's vocational slots. This partnership with labor unions has helped to maintain low training costs as well as provided Corps members with employment opportunities.

Job Corps linkages with State agencies and other federal programs also enable Corps members to benefit from a variety of educational programs. For instance, those who are academically ready participate in the Advanced Career Training (ACT) program in colleges and postsecondary vocational institutions. This program enables youths to continue with their education and vocational training in designated colleges and vocational schools.

(B) Employment Counseling: Corps members are supplied with job seeking and job holding classes as well as labor market information. The program's "world-of-work" component is designed to supplement the job-specific skills provided in vocational classes. The world-of-work program consists of 40 to 60 hours of classroom instruction in which enrollees are taught, among other things, how to approach potential employers for jobs and how to conduct themselves in interviews. Instructional aids such as filmstrip presentations and simulated job interviews are used.

(C) Allowances and Support: Enrollees receive a modest monthly stipend for personal expenses and entertainment (living expenses are covered by residential support discussed below). In 1978 the monthly allowance for the first six months was set at \$69 with a maximum rate of \$100 for additional months in the program. Modest adjustments in these rates (based upon Corps member performance) is left to the discretion of the center director.

(D) Residential Support: The residential program component not only serves to place youths in an environment conducive to learning employment-related skills, but it is also instrumental in providing them with recreational activities. The enabling legislation for Job Corps requires that, as part of the residential program, enrollees be furnished with a well organized and fully supervised recreation program. Centers offer athletic activities and such other activities as dances, arts and crafts competitions, and trips to amusement parks. As with other Job Corps programs, linkages with other organizations and institutions help to enrich these services. For example, Job Corps recently entered into a contract with the U.S. National Football League Players Association. Under this agreement, professional athletes visit Job Corps centers to conduct sports workshops.

(E) Other Supportive Services: Job Corps provides a host of health-related services. Each center has an on-site infirmary staffed with health professionals. Each Corps member is given a thorough medical check-up upon arrival and is supplied with all appropriate medical and dental services. Other services that fall under the umbrella of health programs are psychological evaluation and counseling, health education, and nutritional services.

Job Corps is among the most expensive of the youth programs but also the most cost-effective. Including all services plus indirect administrative expenses, the annual cost per training slot is about \$10,100. With an annual turnover rate of close to two Corps members per training slot, the approximate total cost per enrollee is \$5,050. Evaluative studies have examined the question of program cost in relation to lifetime earnings of participants. These investigations -- on the basis of longitudinal data and control group comparison -- estimate that the increases in lifetime earnings and other social returns of participants far exceed the initial investment in the program. The following are specific findings from evaluative studies.³⁰

(A) Employment and Earnings Impacts: Table 11 shows that the placement rate of Job Corps participants has exceeded the 90 percent mark in fiscal year 1978. Of those available for placement, over 60 percent were gainfully employed; the proportion returning to school hovered at the 20 percent range; and an average of 6 percent entered the armed forces.

Studies that evaluate the employment and earnings of Corps members versus control groups generally report that, initially, the control group outperforms Corps members. However, this

³⁰ The discussion of impacts are based on the findings reported by the following studies: Mathematica Policy Research, 1979a, 1979b, and 1979c; U.S. Department of Labor, 1978; Hines & Linder, 1979; and U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (various years).

situation is reversed as time passes. For example, one recent evaluation looked at the employment rates and weekly earnings of former Job Corps participants seven months after they had exited the program. It was found that (a) former Corps members had a labor force participation rate of 82 percent compared to 78 percent for a control group, (b) a higher proportion of former participants were employed full time -- 27 percent compared with 24 percent for the control group. And (c) former Corps members also had higher weekly earnings than the control group, \$49 compared with \$45. For former male participants the labor force participation rate was 10 percentage points higher than for the all male control group; 14 percent more had full time jobs; and their weekly earnings was \$23 higher.

Other studies report a positive relationship between length of program enrollment, placement rates, and initial wages. One such investigation found that the employment rate for those who were in the program for three months or less was 56 percent, with an average starting hourly wage of \$2.60. For enrollees who stayed in the program between seven and nine months, the employment rate was slightly over 68 percent and the average starting hourly wage was \$2.90. Job Corps had the greatest positive impact on those who participated in the program for more than 15 months. This group had an employment rate of 76 percent and earned an average of \$3.10 an hour.

(B) Vocational Training and Education Impacts: Job Corps participants are trained for a variety of jobs. Consequently, there is substantial variation in the post program experience of trainees. Nevertheless, the following general observations can be drawn from evaluation research.

(i) Among males, construction trades (36.4 percent), automotive and machine repair (19.8 percent) and food service (11.0 percent) are the most common fields. For females, clerical and sales (43.1 percent), the health field (30.8 percent) and food service (8.5 percent) are among the most typical training slots.

(ii) Job placement for male completers is highest among transportation (70.3 percent), construction (70.2 percent), and industrial production (69.7 percent), among other trades. The occupational clusters showing the highest placement rate among female completers are clerical and sales (55.9 percent), transportation (58.6 percent), and health related jobs (56.8 percent). The overall placement rate for females is lower than that of males, 55.6 percent versus 67.5 percent.

(iii) For males who are employed in training related jobs, those in construction (\$4.01 per hour), clerical and sales (\$3.99 per hour), and industrial production (\$3.52 per hour) command the highest hourly wages. Females in construction (\$4.81 per hour), forestry and farming (\$3.45 per hour), and automotive repair (\$3.67 per hour) receive the highest hourly wages. On the average, males earned more than females -- \$3.57

per hour versus \$2.92 per hour. Females who were trained and placed in "sex-typed" jobs earned less (e.g., clerical and sales at \$2.98 per hour and service jobs at \$2.47 per hour) than those who trained for and entered into "non-traditional" female jobs.

The impact of Job Corps on educational achievement is also impressive. Follow-up research report that seven months after exiting the program, participants are 40 percent more likely than non-participants to have a secondary school diploma or equivalent. The performance of those who subsequently participated in the Advanced Career Training (ACT) program for post-secondary education is also encouraging. This group has low levels of attrition, are in good academic standing, and have positive attitudes about completing their education. The ACT program accounts for 5 percent of Job Corps slots.

(C) Employment Counseling Impacts: Participants in Job Corps' "world-of-work" program proved to be no more knowledgeable in job seeking techniques than control groups. Experts agree that experience in the labor market is more effective than classroom instruction in improving job seeking skills. However, studies do show that Job Corps enrollees who complete world-of-work instruction have better work-relevant attitudes and express greater job satisfaction than control groups.

(D) Supportive Services Impacts: Overall, the health and related services of Job Corps is one of the most successful aspects of the program, both in terms of preventing medical problems and providing low cost medical care. Studies show that the average enrollee is provided with substantially more medical attention -- an average of 10 times as many medical visits -- than they would receive if they were not in the program.

Previously undiagnosed medical problems -- such as visual problems, venereal disease, and dental disease -- are detected in one out of seven enrollees during the initial intake health examination. Another indicator of the program's success is the fact that health problems among former enrollees is one-sixth less during the first seven months out of the program than for control groups.

(E) Noneconomic Impacts: The noneconomic impacts of social programs are among the hardest to isolate and measure. However, job Corps does appear to be successful in reducing delinquency and dependency on public assistance. With regard to delinquency, findings show that among all Job Corps enrollees the incidences of crime is significantly reduced. Specifically, the data reveals that the arrest rates of former program participants during the first seven months after leaving the program is three-fifths that of control groups. Cost-benefit analyses estimate that savings in court fees, victimization, and correction costs alone are about equal to one-half of the total cost of Job Corps.

With regard to dependency on public assistance, follow-up research report that Job Corps is successful in reducing the dependency of former participants on unemployment compensation, housing allowances, food stamps, and other types of government aid. One study estimated a savings of \$250 per enrollee during the first seven months after leaving the program.

5.2 YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

The Youth Employment and Training (YETP) was the most ambitious of the YEDPA programs. This program was intended to provide youths aged 14 to 21 with a wide range of employment-related services including, work experience, on-the-job training, classroom instruction, and career counseling. The objectives of YETP was to enhance the employment prospects of low-income and minority youths who have difficulty entering the labor market. The program enrolled over three times the number of young people in YACC and YIEPP combined. Minorities and the poor were well represented; more than 50 percent were minorities and more than 80 percent were economically disadvantaged.

YETP, unlike the other YEDPA programs discussed previously in this paper, was geared more to employability development than work experience. There were other features of YETP that distinguished it from other YEDPA programs. These include:

(a) Broader eligibility criteria -- enrollment was not limited

to poor youths; those who did not meet the income eligibility criterion were allowed to participate in YETP activities except for paid work experience and intensive services. (b) A more comprehensive structure -- YETP projects had varied services and more linkages with the schools and other manpower programs than other YEDPA programs. And (c) allowances for experimentation -- YETP prime sponsors were to try out new strategies.

A recent U.S. General Accounting Office (1982) report on CETS's in-school youth programs revealed the following about YETP in-school projects: (a) Almost all prime sponsors (98 percent) provided work experience, 24 percent offered on-the-job training, and 20 percent offered classroom skills training. (b) About 55 percent of youths exiting the program obtained unsubsidized jobs. (c) Of those who had unsubsidized jobs, 52 percent stated that the program had helped them to obtain the job, either through skills training or other program services. (d) Thirty five percent of enrollees maintained that the program helped them to stay in school, and 38 percent of those who had unsubsidized employment reported that the program kept them in school. And (e) the program was rated as "very good" or "somewhat good" by 95 percent of the participants.

5.3 BILINGUAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational education is provided in the United States by a complex and decentralized network of government and private institutions, as well as by government-funded and non-government supported employment and training programs. Secondary schools offer vocational education in conjunction with academic courses. Technical schools provide occupational instruction in a variety of fields to both secondary school graduates and adult non-graduates. Community colleges offer short-term (up to two years) occupational training to secondary school graduates who do not want to pursue studies at four year universities. And finally, employment and training programs offer vocational training to youth and adult workers under contractual agreements with public schools, local employers, or community organizations. A heterogeneous mix of occupational areas are also represented in vocational programs. Programs funded under the Federal Vocational Education Act range from courses in home economics offered in public high schools to postsecondary training in computer science provided at large vocational centers.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to review the entire American vocational education system.³¹ Instead our attention will focus on one special part of the vocational education system, that provided bilingually.

³¹ On the overall vocation education system, see Oleszki and Moss, 1981; and Meyer, 1981a, 1981b, and 1981c.

For the most part, bilingual vocational education programs are intended to ease the labor force entry of non-English speaking adults. In 1981-82, the Federal Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OMLEMLA) provided \$3.1 million for the training of approximately 1,400 individuals from 12 different language groups. These funds went to a variety of organizations including vocational training centers and voluntary resettlement organizations.

In general, bilingual vocational training has been fairly successful in preparing non-English speaking groups to enter the labor market. These programs have reduced the unemployment rate and increased the earnings of a wide range of non-English speaking groups across the United States. A recent investigation surveyed former bilingual vocational program participants one year after exiting the program. This study reported that one year after leaving the program, the unemployment rate for participants was 40 percent less than prior to program participation. At the same time, the average weekly salary was 16 percent higher than preprogram levels. However, most program participants were not employed in the field in which they were trained. This is consistent with the findings from other training programs. The strategy suggested most often to remedy this situation is for training programs to establish stronger linkages with local businesses in order to determine which occupational skills are most in demand. This approach may prove beneficial for bilingual vocational programs.³²

³² U.S. Department of Education, 1982: 42-43.

6. ENLISTING THE PRIVATE SECTOR

Until fairly recently, strategies that entail considerable involvement of the government with the private sector in designing and providing manpower services were not popular in the United States. The CETA programs since the mid-1970s, and many refugee assistance efforts, have utilized private non-profit organizations fairly extensively to deliver programs services. Currently, as part of the generally business-oriented policies of the Reagan Administration, there is much emphasis placed on partnership-type efforts between the government sector and the private for-profit business sector in addressing employment and training issues.³³ Below we discuss two recent government efforts to solicit the cooperation of the private sector in designing and implementing manpower programs.³⁴

³³ The new Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), which in 1983 replaces the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) as the main federal employment and training legislation provides evidence of this trend in its very title.

³⁴ On the utilization of private businesses in the federal employment and training system, see Bendick (1982b).

6.1 TARGETED JOBS TAX CREDIT PROGRAM

The Targeted Jobs Tax Credit (TJTC) program was authorized by the Revenue Act of 1978. This is a categorical wage subsidy program designed to provide jobs in the private sector for persons encountering labor market problems due to limited work experience, poverty, or physical handicap.³⁵

TJTC provides wage subsidies to private employers hiring individuals from seven target groups. Among them were economically disadvantaged youth (aged 18-24) and young people (aged 16-18) enrolled in cooperative education programs (which provide work experience during the school day). Subsidies are paid to employers for a maximum of two years to provide 50 percent of wages for the first year and 25 percent for the second year. A maximum of \$6,000 credit is allowed for each enrollee. The funds expended for the TJTC program was \$24 million for fiscal year 1980.

Overall, TJTC participants were typically male; 36 percent were black and 9 percent Hispanic. Disadvantaged young people and cooperative education students comprised 36.7 percent and 47.2 percent, respectively, of all those certified -- that is, those placed on the payroll by the employer. Also, youths from cooperative education programs were less economically disadvantaged than other youth in TJTC.

³⁵ The information on TJTC is based on the report by Vanski, 1981, Bishop, 1981, and various issues of Employment and Training Report of the President.

At present, no definitive conclusions can be drawn regarding the effectiveness of the TJTC program. The reasons for this are: (1) the short duration of the program's operation -- approximately three years, (2) limitations with respect to reporting procedures in program performance data, and (3) the scarcity of evaluative investigations. However, despite the ~~aforementioned limitations~~, there is some information on the program's operation and impacts.

Agencies entrusted with the operation of TJTC (e.g., the state employment service, state vocational rehabilitation centers, CETA local administering agencies, etc.) were often not well organized, efficient, or well coordinated with respect to service delivery. This hampered program operations, specifically the certification and vouchering of participants. In addition, the enthusiasm for the program among these agencies was mixed. While some offices of the Employment service, for example, felt positive about the program, many training program administrators feared that TJTC competed with the skill-training components of their programs.

Partially in consequence of these administrative problems, and partially due to general employer resistance to absorbing disadvantaged workers, the program fell short of meeting its goals of encouraging employers to hire the disadvantaged. Some analysts contend that many of those who did participate actively would have hired the disadvantaged in absence of a tax credit

system because their business naturally utilized large numbers of low wage, low skill workers; the majority of TJTC subsidized jobs were in occupations that have relatively high concentrations of low-skilled workers. Other, more "mainstream" employers who did not hire disadvantaged workers in the absence of the subsidy proved relatively resistant to being enticed to do so. TJTC certifications were primarily in service jobs (22.7 percent), machine trades (12.1 percent), clerical and sales (10.3 percent), or in other low skilled jobs; only 2.8 percent of the participants were certified in professional, technical, or managerial occupations. Wage rates is another indicator of this same pattern. TJTC did not substantially improve the earnings of participants. About 14 percent earned less than the minimum wage (\$3.10 per hour), 60 percent earned between \$3.10 to \$3.99 per hour, 14.8 percent were paid between \$4.00 and \$5.99 an hour, and only 11.6 percent earned \$6.00 an hour and over. Of course, such low wages and low skill levels are to be expected in many of the entry level jobs open to disadvantaged workers. The key point is that the TJTC subsidy seemed typically not to open a larger number of even such jobs; and it does not seem typically to open the door for disadvantaged workers to entry level jobs with future training and promotional opportunities.

In sum, TJTC seems to fall short of meeting its goals. Those most in need were not being reached; it is questionable if employers hired the disadvantaged because of the tax subsidy; and where the program was successful in securing employment for enrollees, the jobs were of low status, low pay, and offered little future opportunities.

With respect to immigrant and refugee youths, tax credit job programs like TJTC can be expected to encounter the same sorts of potential problems described above for the TJTC general population. For one, employers may feel reluctant to hire immigrants and refugees for a variety of reasons, among them, discrimination on the basis of national origin, language, and other individual-specific attributes. Another potential difficulty is the low employability level among most immigrants and refugees. Lack of fluency in the host language can considerably lower the employability of the immigrant.

6.2 VOLUNTARY RESETTLEMENT ORGANIZATIONS

Private non-profit voluntary organizations have played an important role in resettling refugees in the United States. Many of these organizations provide temporary short-term assistance intended to ease economic and social adjustment. The efforts of resettlement organizations are typically directed at adult refugees and refugee families. However, they

warrant our attention since the well-being of adult migrants also affects the adjustment of their young adult children and because this mode of service delivery has potential for programs for youth as well.

The volume of refugees entering a given country and policies pertaining to refugee assistance (long-term versus short-term assistance) determines the type of aid and mode of service delivery provided by voluntary resettlement organizations. Several models have been posited in the literature depicting the way in which voluntary resettlement organizations operate in the United States, Canada, and France (Lanphier, 1983). While no one model can describe how these organizations function in a given country, the resettlement organizations in the United States approximate type one model: large volume/primacy on economic adaptation (Lanphier, 1983).

The type one model operates in countries like the United States where large numbers of refugees enter in successive waves. To accommodate this large volume, voluntary resettlement organizations provide short-term services (1 to 2 months) rather than prolonged assistance (6 to 12 months) common in countries that absorb relatively small numbers of refugees.

A second major characteristic of the type one model that is applicable to the United States is the importance that is given to economic adaptation over to cultural adaptation. Although resettlement organizations in the U.S. also provide services

geared to ease cultural adjustment, much of the effort of these agencies focuses on helping refugees to attain immediate economic self sufficiency. To accomplish this, refugees are typically encouraged initially to take whatever jobs are available. Once gainfully employed they are encouraged to improve their employability by taking English language courses in local schools; entering occupational training programs; and, for those with a profession, certification to practice in the United States is advised.

Although the strategies used by the resettlement organizations in the U.S. approximate the practices postulated by the type one model, it is difficult to partition fully efforts directed at economic adjustment and those intended to ease cultural adaptation. In the case of the United States, both measures are intertwined. For example, research on Cuban refugees shows that occupational adjustment and psychological well-being are interrelated (Rogg, 1974; Rogg and Conney, 1980). Similarly, knowledge of English is important for both cultural and economic adjustment. This fact was most recently illustrated by Indochinese refugees. Those who spoke some English had higher rates of employment than those who did not speak the language (Bach and Bach, 1980; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981 and 1982).

How effective are the efforts of voluntary resettlement organizations? Unfortunately evaluative reports addressing this question are not available. As stated by two researchers:

... so much of the responsibility for resettlement has been given to this sector, [voluntary resettlement agencies] that one would anticipate an outpouring of comparative research projects. Yet, as of this writing, no such studies are underway." (Bach and Bach, 1980: 37).

However, it may reasonably be inferred that the general approach of providing government financed services to refugees via voluntary organizations may be a particularly useful approach in providing services to migrants.

In "principle 10" of section 2.7 of this report, we suggested that government resettlement efforts which operate through institutions in the refugee or migrant community itself may be particularly effective in reaching their target clientele. Voluntary organizations may be more administratively flexible and culturally adaptive to the style of the migrant groups than are standard government agencies. They may also be able to mobilize charitable assistance -- both financial and "favors" -- from private sources to supplement government resources. In the American experience, no unsurmountable difficulties have arisen in preserving government fiduciary or other responsibility when "contracting out" service delivery to nonprofit community based organizations. At the same time, private delivery of government-financed human service has

generally been found to be approximately competitive with direct government provision of these services in terms of cost and administrative efficiency.³⁶ In the cases where cultural accessibility is central to the effective delivery of services -- as in the case of migrants and refugees -- the utilization of community-based organizations as service deliverers should therefore be seriously considered.

³⁶ For a review of the general American experience with the contracted-out delivery of public services, see Bendick (1982a).

7. SOME GENERAL THEMES IN THE U.S. EXPERIENCE

In this report we have presented a selective review of U.S. efforts in employment and training that address the employment and training needs of migrant and refugee youth. In this final section, we draw on this discussion to highlight three of the most important themes in the U.S. experience which cut broadly across the experience of many programs.

"Mainstreaming" Efforts for Refugees and Migrants

One of the most striking facts about the United States' approach to the employment and training needs of migrant and refugee youth is that relatively little government effort is channeled through programs targeted specifically on these groups. Some special projects in local areas have such targeting -- particularly under bilingual education programs -- and some efforts under special refugee resettlement programs serve youth as part of family groups. But most programs to assist the labor market success of migrant and refugee youth are programs which define their clientele as poor, disadvantaged, or hard-to-employ youth more generally, with Hispanics, Indochinese, and many other refugee or migrant groups given no special preference over, for example, low-income blacks or low-income whites.

The appropriateness of this general approach in the United States -- let alone its applicability to other nations such as Australia -- is a complex matter to judge. Partially, this is a matter of economics of scale: In many locales, the number of migrants and refugees may be too small to justify separate programs. But that is by no means true in many locations in the nation. It is also a matter of whether the needs of migrants and refugees differ significantly from those of other disadvantaged youth. Important differences do arise in English language proficiency, and in general cultural knowledge. On the other hand, many of the needs directly related to labor market success -- such as job skill training, job search/job readiness training, vocational counseling, and remedial basic education -- may be quite similar. Also involved may be pragmatic questions of whether, given political pressures on government funding decisions, more or fewer resources would be available to serve migrants under separate programs compared to more universal programs. And, last but not least, the question is inexorably intertwined with the question of the nation's social philosophy concerning cultural pluralism and the desirability of immigrants' maintaining their individual cultural identities in the long run.

Because of such complexities, we are in no position to enunciate definite conclusions about the proper mix between programs for migrant youth specifically and programs for disadvantaged youth more generally. Rather, we shall simply state

that in the United States the dominant approach has been the latter; that the information in this report should be read in that context; and that where U.S. programs have deviated from that approach, they have been either highly controversial (as in the case of bilingual education) or have been seen largely as short-term intervention designed to move their clients into the more general system as soon as possible (as in the case of special refugee programs).

The Effectiveness of Alternative Program Strategies

In the course of this paper, we discussed three major types of employment and training programs for youth -- those which mainly provide basic educational and cultural services prerequisite to entering the job market (for example, bilingual education), those which primarily provide work experience (for example, the Neighborhood Youth Corps), and those which primarily emphasize specific training in vocational skill (for example, the Job Corps). While there is considerable diversity among programs in each category, some fairly clear general statements can be made about what sorts of benefits typically flow from each.

In general, programs primarily providing work experience seem to generate mostly short-run benefits such as income transfers to low-income youth and their families and cooling of social tensions and prevention of social unrest by providing activities to idle youth. Their contribution to long-run employability -- to obtaining permanent jobs outside the program or to commanding higher wages or greater advancement opportunities in such jobs -- seem to be limited. Programs which emphasize remedial basic education or which provide specific vocational skill training seem to have better payoffs in terms of those longer-run "investment" sorts of objectives.

The Job Corps, in particular, has a noteworthy record of success, obtaining highly favorable benefit-cost results while serving some of the nation's most severely disadvantaged and difficult to reach youth. A good deal of the success of this program may be attributed to the fact that it provides a broad range of complementary services to each enrollee, rather than simply addressing one of an individual's multiple labor market handicaps while leaving other handicaps untouched. Other, less comprehensive programs often achieve the same effect by forging linkages with a variety of public and private agencies and programs so that a complete package of services can be assembled. While provision of an extensive range and an intensive depth of services to an individual enrollee can be expensive -- Job Corps annual expenditures run more than \$10,000

per enrollee -- they nevertheless appear to more than repay their investment, and to repay their investment better than less expensive approaches.

National versus Local Control

One of the hallmarks of most human service delivery programs is great diversity among the local implementations of the program. This is particularly true in the United States, where an emphasis on keeping social policy under state and local control often creates programs in which the federal role is primarily one of providing funding to be spent at local discretion. Even within programs directly managed by the federal government, or among the local operations of programs within a large state, considerable diversity is to be found.

In the United States experience, such decentralized structuring is most appropriate when the problem which the program addresses varies a great deal from locality to locality. Such diversity is typical of labor market programs generally, where each local labor market is importantly influenced by specific local circumstances. Local diversity is also typical of the American refugee and immigrant situations, where the number and cultural background of migrants differs widely from geographic area to area. These general points argue in favor of the appropriateness to the United States of a decentralized approach. Similar circumstances may well be characteristic of the Australian situation.

This general conclusion is rendered more complex, however, by some actual American experience with decentralized manpower programs. For example, we discussed earlier in this paper the tendency of local governments to utilize enrollees in federally funded work experience programs as substitutes for employees which they would have otherwise hired; this converted the program from an effort to create additional job opportunities to a national subsidy to local government revenues. Similarly, we discussed tradeoffs which programs have encountered among program objectives; for example, the objective of serving the most needy clients often conflicts with such other objectives as exhibiting a high post-program placement rate. In such cases, local program operators, if left unchecked by national regulations, may choose to sacrifice some objectives which the national government feels is essential to the program's fulfilling its mission. Targeting of program enrollment to the most needy potential enrollees and prevention of substitution of federal resources for local resources are two subjects in particular where strong federal requirements have proved necessary to override local discretion. When the client group of a program may be relatively weak politically in the local area -- as may sometimes be the case with migrant and refugee groups -- such national restrictions on local control may be particularly appropriate.

APPENDIX: STATISTICAL TABLES

TABLE 1

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF HISPANIC IMMIGRANTS BY COUNTRY
OF ORIGIN BY SEX: 1978

<u>AGE</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
<u>All Hisp. Immigrants</u>		
0-1	14.1	27.6
10-19	22.4	12.4
20-39	47.5	19.9
40 +	15.9	46.8
Median	25.7	----
<u>Mexicans</u>		
0-1	18.4	17.8
10-19	22.3	21.6
20-39	50.4	48.3
40 +	8.9	12.3
Median	23.7	24.4
<u>Cubans</u>		
0-1	2.9	2.3
10-19	26.3	20.4
20-39	25.2	29.2
40 +	45.4	48.2
Median	36.5	38.7
<u>Central & South</u> <u>Americans</u>		
0-1	12.8	10.2
10-19	20.9	17.7
20-39	53.0	52.2
40 +	13.3	20.0
Median	26.2	28.5

TABLE 1
(continued)

SOURCE: U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Annual Report, various years. U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1978, Statistical Yearbook. Cited in Douglas Massey "Patterns and Effects of Hispanic Immigration to the United States." Report to the National Commission for Employment Policy. Washington, D.C.: March 1982. Extracted from Appendix Tables 2.6 (Males) and 2.7 (Females).

TABLE 2
PERSONS HAVING DIFFICULTY WITH ENGLISH, BY
CURRENT LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH SPOKEN
IN UNITED STATES HOMES: 1979

Current Language Spoken Other than English	<u>Persons 5 to 17</u> <u>Years Old</u>		<u>Persons 18</u> <u>Yrs. Old and over</u>	
	<u>Persons</u> <u>(1,000)</u>	<u>percent</u>	<u>Persons</u> <u>(1,000)</u>	<u>percent</u>
Total	3,826	12.2	14,158	24.1
Spanish	2,538	13.9	6,231	34.1
Italian	168	.6	1,186	18.3
French	134	(a)	853	6.4
German	158	.6	1,103	4.4
Polish	30	(c)	701	16.5
Chinese	94	10.6	420	32.4
Greek	79	(a)	286	29.0
Filipino	67	(b)	351	16.2
Portugese	60	(b)	185	36.8
Japanese	39	(b)	227	26.9
Korean	42	(b)	149	47.0
All Other	415	17.3	2,465	15.3

Notes:

(a) Rounds to zero

(b) Base Less than 75,000

(c) Persons classified as having difficulty with English and those that report speaking English "not well" or "not at all"

TABLE 2
(continued)

Source: United States Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract
of the United States: 1982-83. (103rd edition,
Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office,
1982. Extracted from table number 46, page 38.

TABLE 3
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT
IN SPECIAL LANGUAGE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS
BY RACE AND ETHNICITY: 1979

<u>Race/ethnicity</u>	<u>Total (1000)</u>	<u>Percent of All Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment in This Race/Ethnic Group</u>
White (B)	50	.2
Black (B)	7	.1
Hispanic	643	20.2
Asian American	116	15.5
American Indian	16	5.2

Notes: (a) Refers to public school students enrolled in bilingual education programs, high intensity language training, and English-as-a-second-language (ESL) programs, or any non-language class taught in a language other than English

(b) Non-Hispanic

Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, 1980 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey, National State Summaries, 1982. Taken from U.S. Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1982-83. (103rd edition, Washington D.C.; U.S. Government Printing Office, 1982.) Extracted from table number 243, page 151.

TABLE 4

TWELVE STATES WITH THE LARGEST
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL
ENROLLMENT OF REFUGEE CHILDREN
(Fiscal Year 1981)

<u>State</u>	<u>Southeast Asian</u>		<u>Other</u>		<u>Total</u>
	<u>Primary</u>	<u>Secondary</u>	<u>Primary</u>	<u>Secondary</u>	
California....	20,073	15,071	1,901	1,400	39,413
New York.....	2,706	1,141	5,938	1,357	11,142
Florida.....	1,711	1,112	2,941	1,980	7,744
Texas.....	4,135	3,167	-	-	7,302
Pennsylvania..	2,383	1,928	2,094	590	6,995
Washington....	3,384	3,015	40	11	6,450
Illinois.....	2,384	1,946	1,086	751	6,167
Minnesota.....	2,628	2,285	60	41	5,014
Oregon.....	2,394	1,696	13	4	4,017
Virginia.....	1,887	1,699	127	107	3,820
Louisiana.....	2,038	899	14	7	2,948
Wisconsin.....	1,524	771	132	21	2,448
TOTAL.....	47,247	35,520	14,426	6,357	103,550

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education. Reported in U.S. Department
of Health and Human Services. Report to the Congress.
Refugee Resettlement Program (Washington, D.C.: U.S.
Government Printing Office.)

TABLE 5
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WHITE, BLACK, AND HISPANICS
AGES 16 TO 19: 1981
[Numbers in Thousands]

<u>Employment Status</u>	<u>Race and Ethnicity</u>		
	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Hispanic</u>
Civilian Non-Institutionalized Population (in 1000s)	13,516	2,288	1,176
Unemployment Rate	17.3	41.4	24.0
Percentage not in Labor Force	41.1	62.3	53.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1982). Tables A-8 and A-9, pages 162-63.

TABLE 6
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF HISPANIC SUBGROUPS
AGES 16 TO 19: 1981
[Numbers in Thousands]

<u>Employment Status</u>	<u>Hispanic Subgroups</u>		
	<u>Mexican</u>	<u>Puerto Rican</u>	<u>Cuban</u>
Civilian Non-Institutionalized Population (in 1000s)	744	171	77
Unemployment Rate	22.6	42.5	*
Percentage not in Labor Force	47.2	74.9	*

Notes:

* Base less than 35,000.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1982). Table A-9, page 163.

TABLE 7

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH
CORPS ENROLLEES: FISCAL YEAR 1974
 (Percent Distribution)

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Type of Program</u>	
	<u>In-School</u>	<u>Out-of-School</u>
Total Enrollment (in Thousands)	163.4	71.6
Sex:		
Male	51.0	46.3
Female	49.0	53.7
Age: (a)		
Under 19 years	98.2	85.5
19 to 21 years	1.8	11.7
Race:		
White	48.3	51.7
Black	42.3	41.0
Other	9.4	7.3
Spanish-American, of which:	15.4	22.1
Mexican	96.0	53.9
Puerto Rican	3.6	24.2
Other	(b)	21.9

TABLE 7
(continued)

<u>Characteristic</u>	<u>Type of Program</u>	
	<u>In-School</u>	<u>Out-of-School</u>
Education:		
8 years or less	20.3	17.8
9 to 11 years	42.3	41.0
Other(c)	9.4	7.3
Economically:		
Disadvantaged	100.0	96.0
Public Assistance Recipient	32.7	46.5

Notes:

- (a) 2.8 percent of the out-of-school participants were 22 years or older.
- (b) Not available.
- (c) Not necessarily high school graduates.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975). Derived from Table F-9, page 326.

TABLE 8
CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS IN SELECTED
YOUTH PROGRAMS FOR FISCAL
YEAR 1981
[Percent Distribution]

PROGRAM AND FISCAL YEAR

CHARACTERISTIC

	<u>YETP</u> ^(a)	<u>YETP GOV</u> ^(a)	<u>YCCIP</u> ^(a)	<u>SUMMER</u> ^(a)
U.S. TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
MALE	48.7	54.2	75.8	52.1
FEMALE	51.3	45.8	24.2	47.9
AGE:				
14-15	12.9	24.1	.8	34.9
16-19	76.1	66.9	97.9	58.8
20-21	10.7	8.8	1.2	6.2
22 & over	.3	.2	.1	.1
EDUCATION:				
Secondary School Student	66.5	66.6	19.0	81.9
Secondary School Dropout	19.2	20.8	60.6	5.8
Secondary School Graduate	10.7	9.7	17.9	6.8
Student in Post- secondary School	3.6	2.9	2.6	5.5
ECONOMIC STATUS:				
Disad- vantaged(b)	86.8	94.9	86.8	99.5

TABLE 8
(continued)

CHARACTERISTIC

	<u>YETP</u>	<u>YETP GOV</u>	<u>YCCIP</u>	<u>SUMMER</u>
ECONOMIC STATUS(b):				
AFDC Recipient	23.3	18.1	19.3	37.4
Public Assistance Recipient	29.7	24.5	25.9	43.1
Below Poverty Level	78.3	78.1	82.9	99.5
RACE/ETHNICITY:				
White	47.0	23.5	47.5	32.5
Black	35.3	36.5	33.7	49.4
Hispanic	14.1	37.4	14.6	13.9
Other	3.7	2.6	4.2	4.2
Limited English Ability	5.4	23.7	3.7	3.9
LABOR FORCE STATUS:				
Underemployed	2.1	1.7	1.0	1.3
Unemployed	43.5	44.1	83.8	29.3
Other	54.4	54.3	15.2	69.9

NOTES

- (a) YETP - Youth Employment and Training Programs,
authorized by Title IV of The Comprehensive
Employment and Training Act (CETA).
YETP GOV - YETP activities funded by special grants to
individual states.
YCCIP - Youth Community Conservation and Improvement
Projects, authorized by Title IV of CETA.

TABLE 8
(continued)

- (b) A person is considered economically disadvantaged if he or she meets one or more of the following: (1) A member of a family on public assistance; (2) a member of a family whose income would have qualified the family for public assistance had it applied; (3) a member of a family whose income did not exceed the poverty level or did not surpass the 70 percent U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics' lower living standard income (\$14,203 for a family of four in 1981); (4) a foster child who receives state aid; and (5) an individual who faces significant barriers to employment, for example, a handicapped person, a person who is institutionalized, a regular outpatient of a mental institution, and the like. (d) AFDC recipient is an individual receiving Aid to Family with Dependent Children. Poverty level was \$7,190 for a non-farm family of four in 1981.

SOURCE: Derived from the following:
U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training
Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S.
Government Printing Office, 1982). Table F-7, page
292.

TABLE 9
PROGRAM ACTIVITIES AND ENROLLMENT IN
SELECTED YOUTH PROGRAMS FOR
FISCAL YEAR 1980
(Percent Distribution)

<u>PROGRAM</u>				
<u>ACTIVITY</u>		<u>YETP</u>	<u>YETP GOV</u>	<u>YCCIP</u>
<u>ENROLLMENT</u> (in 1000s)(b)		115.8	11.6	11.5
Career Employment Services		45.1	12.9	(a)
Transition Services		21.8	62.1	(a)
On-The-Job Training		1.2	.8	(a)
Classroom Training		9.7	10.3	1.7
Work Experience		17.3	11.2	91.3
Other		4.9	2.6	7.0

NOTES

(a) Not Applicable

(b) Totals include participants who were not enrolled in a specific program activity, as well as enrollees who participated in more than one program activity. Percentages, therefore, refer to "Enrollment" and not to individual participants.

SOURCE: Derived from U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981). Table F-3, page 259.

TABLE 10

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF JOB CORPS ENROLLEES:
FISCAL YEAR 1978
[Percent Distribution]

Characteristics

Economic

Average Family Income	\$4,850
Enrollee from Families on Public Assistance	33

Education

High School Drop Out	86
Less Than Sixth-Grade Reading Level	50

Race and Ethnic Origin

White	29
Black	56
Hispanic	10
American Indian	3
Other Minority	2

Age of Entry

16 years and under	23
17 years	25
18 to 21 years	52

Sex

Male	71
Female	29

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979). Table 1, page 171.

TABLE 11
JOB CORPS PLACEMENTS, FISCAL
YEAR 1978^(a)

Placement Data

Total Available	30,072
Total Placed	27,920
Placement Rate(b) (Percent)	92.8
Employed and Hourly Wages: Total	20,465
Percentage	68.1
Wage Per Hour	\$3.10
School: Total	6,083
Percentage	20.2
Armed Forces: Total	1,372
Percentage	4.6

TABLE 11
(continued)
JOB CORPS PLACEMENTS, FISCAL
YEAR 1978(a)

Notes:

- (a) Data includes all former enrollees since placement assistance is provided to all former participants.
- (b) Those who are available for placement and were placed in employment, in school, in another training program or the military.

Sources: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979). Table 2, page 172.

REFERENCES

- Abramson, M. (1973). Ethnic Diversity in Catholic America. New York: John Wilen and Sons.
- Academy for Educational Development and Edward W. Hazen Foundation (1982). "A New Direction for Bilingual Education in the 1980's". Focus (March): 1-4.
- Addison, John T. and Siebert, W. Stanley (1979). The Market for Labor: An Analytical Treatment. Santa Monica, California: Goodyear Publishing Company.
- Aliberti, Joan M. (1979). "Conceptual Considerations of Ethnicity: A View of Educational and Occupational Needs, Past, Present, and Future." Pp. 21-42 in U.S. Civil Service Commission. Civil Rights Issues of European Ethnic Americans in the United States: Opportunities and Challenges. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights.
- Amico, Joan and Boochever, Stephen (eds) (1979). CETA Works: A Selection of Programs. Washington, D.C.: National Association of Counties.
- Anderson, Bernard E. and Sawhill, Isabel V. (1980). Youth Employment and Public Policy. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Bach, Robert L. et. al. (1981). "The Flotilla 'Entrants': Latest and Most Controversial." Cuban Studies/Estudios Cubanos. (July-January): 29-48.
- Bach, Robert L. and Bach, Jennifer B. (1980). "Employment Patterns of Southeast Asian Refugees." Monthly Labor Review. (103): 31-38.
- Bailey, Silvia Pedraza (1981). "Cuban and Mexicans in the United States: The Functions of Political and Economic Migration." Cuban Studies/Estudios Cubanos (July - January): 79-98.
- Barclay, Suzanne et al. (1979). Schooling and Work Among Youths From Low-Income Households. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.
- "Battle Over Bilingualism." Time (September 8): 64-65.

- Bendick, Marc, Jr. (1980). "Failure to Enroll in Public Assistance Programs." Social Work 25 (July): 268-274.
- Bendick, Marc, Jr. (1982a). On the Efficiency of Markets Created by Government: Recent Experience with the For-Profit Privatization of Public Services. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.
- Bendick, Marc, Jr. (1982b). "Employment, Training, and Economic Development." Pp. 297-511. In John Palmer and Isabel Sawhill (eds.). The Reagan Experiment. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute Press.
- Bendick, Marc, Jr. and Mary Lou Egan (1982). "Providing Industrial Jobs in the Inner City." Business 23 (January-March): 2-9.
- Berry, John W. (1980). "Acculturation as Varieties of Adaptation." Pp. 9-25 in Amado Padilla (ed.). Acculturation Theory, Models and Some New Findings. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.
- Berryman, Sue E. and Waite, Linda J. (1982) Hispanics and CETA: Issues of Access, Distribution and Equity. Santa Monica, California: Rand Corporation.
- Blau, Peter M. and Duncan, Otis Dudley (1967). The American Occupational Structure. New York: The Free Press.
- Borus, Michael E., Brennan, John P., and Rosen, Sidney (1970). "A Benefit-Cost Analysis of Neighborhood Youth Corps: The Out-of-School Program in Indiana." Journal of Human Resources (5): 130-159
- Bouvier, Leon F. (1983). "U.S. Immigration: Effects on Population Growth and Structure." Pp. 193-210 in Mary M. Kritz (ed.). U.S. Immigration and Refugee Policy: Global and Domestic Issues. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Company.
- Bowden, Standaert (1980). "A Hispanic Solidarity Against Illiteracy." New York Times (September 7): 22.
- Brown, George H. et al. (1980). The Condition of Education for Hispanic Americans. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office

- Burbridge, Lynn C. (1983). Employment and Training Programs for Youth: An Interpretation and Synthesis of Measured Outcomes. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.
- Butler, Eric and Parker, Jim (1980). Lesson from Experience--An Interim Review of the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act. Youth Knowledge Development Report 3.19. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Callan, Victor J. (1983). "Anglo-Australian Attitudes Toward Immigrants: A Review of Survey Evidence." International Migration Review (Spring): 121-137.
- California State Office of Bilingual Education (1982). Basic Principles for the Education of Language-Minority Students: An Overview. Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education.
- Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education (1979). Giving Youth a Better Chance: Options for Education, Work, and Service. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Casal, Lourdes and Hernandez, Andres R. (1975). "Cubans in the U.S.: A Survey of the Literature." Cuban Studies/Estudios Cubanos (July): 25-51.
- Constantinou, Marianne (1980). "Night Schools Shed Light for Immigrants." New York Times (September 7): 23.
- Corporation for Public/Private Ventures (1980). Enhanced Work Projects--The Interim Findings from the Venture in Community Improvement Demonstrations. Youth Knowledge Development Report 7.5. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Dannoff, Malcolm M. (1978). Evaluation of the Impact of ESEA Title VII Spanish/English Bilingual Education Program: Overview of Study and Findings. Palo Alto, California: American Institutes for Research
- DeAvila, Edward et al. (1982). "Improving Cognition: A Multicultural Approach." Pp. 53-83 in Stanley S. Seidner (ed.). Issues of Language Assessment: Foundations and Research. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

- de la Puente, Manuel (forthcoming). Labor Force Entry and Early Career Patterns: A Comparative Analysis of White, Black and Hispanic Young Men and Women. Ph.D. dissertation, Columbia University.
- Diaz, William, A. et al. (1980). Entitlement Implementation-Two Years Experience. Youth Knowledge Development Report II.2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Eisenstadt, S. N. (1953). "Analysis of Patterns of Immigration and Absorption of Immigrants." Population Studies 7 (November).
- Eisenstadt, S. N. (1954). The Absorption of Immigrants. London: Routledge and Kegan.
- Emblen, Frank (1980). "An Institute for Latins in Manhattan." New York Times (September 7): 23.
- Featherman, David and Hauser, Robert M. (1978). Opportunity and Change. New York: Academic Press.
- Fishman, Joshua A. (1977). "Bilingual Education - A Perspective." IRCD Bulletin (XII): 1-12.
- Fitzpatrick, Joseph P. (1966). "The Importance of 'Community' in the Process of Immigrant Assimilation." International Migration Review 1 (Fall): 5-16.
- Fuchs, Lawrence A. (1983). "Immigration, Pluralism, and Public Policy: The Challenge of the Pluribus to the Unum." Pp. 289-316 in Mary Kritz (ed.). U.S. Immigration and Refugee Policy: Global and Domestic Issues. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Company.
- Gilsinan, James, F. and Tomey, E. Allan (1980). A Comparison of Public and Private Sector Worksites--An Interim Report. Youth Knowledge Development Report 7.7. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Glazer, Nathan and Moynihan, Patrick D. (1970). Beyond the Melting Pot. Boston, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press.
- Gordon, Milton M. (1961). "Assimilation in America: Theory and Reality." Daedalus volume 90.
- Gordon, Milton M. (1964). Assimilation in American Life. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Greeley, Andrew M. (1974). Ethnicity in the United States. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Guttman, Robert (1983). "Job Training Partnership Act: New Help for the Unemployed." Monthly Labor Review (106): 3-10.
- Hacker, Andrew (ed.) (1983). U/S: A Statistical Portrait of the American People. New York: The Viking Press.
- Haveman, Robert M. and Palmer, John L. (eds.) (1982). Jobs for Disadvantaged Workers: The Economics of Employment Subsidies. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution.
- Hines, Joseph and Linder, Brian (1979). Job Corps Vocational Offerings: An Analysis of Training Areas and Center Performance. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, Report Number 11.
- Kemper, Peter; Long, David; and Thorton, Craig (1981). The Supported Work Evaluation: Final Benefit-Cost Analysis. Princeton, N.J.: Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.
- Kessler-Harris, Alice and Yans-McLaughlin, Virginia (1978). "European Immigrant Groups." Pp. 107-137 in Thomas Sowell (ed.) Essays and Data on American Ethnic Groups. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute Press.
- Kitano, Harry, H.L. (1981). "Asian-Americans: The Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, Philipinos, and Southeast Asians." The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 454 (March): 125-138.
- Kritz, Mary (ed.) (1983). U.S. Immigration and Refugee Policy: Global and Domestic Issues. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Company.
- Lamphier, C. Michael (1983). "Refugee Resettlement Models in Action." International Migration Review (Spring): 4-33.
- Lapkin, Sharon (1982). "Evaluating Second-Language Skills in Canadian French-Immersion Programs." Pp. 127-130 in Stanley S. Seidner (ed.). Issues of Language Assessment: Foundations and Research. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.
- Larson, Eric (1982). "Rise in Children With Little English Adds to Controversy Over Bilingual Education." The Wall Street Journal (June 22): 56.

- Mandel, Sheila and Solnich, Loren (1979). A Preliminary Estimate of the Impact of Youth Entitlement on School Behavior. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.
- Mangum, Garth and Walsh, John (1980). Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best For Whom? U.S. Department of Labor. Youth Knowledge Development Report 2.2.
- Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (1979a). The Youth Entitlement Demonstration Program: A Summary Report on the Start-Up Period of the Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.
- Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (1979b). The Youth Entitlement Demonstration: An Interim Report on Program Implementation. New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.
- Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (1980). Enhanced Work Projects--The Supported Work Approach for Youth. Youth Knowledge Development Report 7.3 Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (1980). Summary and Findings of the National Supported Work Demonstration. Cambridge, MA.: Ballinger Publishing Company.
- Marsh, Robert E. (1980). "Socioeconomic Status of Indochinese Refugees in the United States: Progress and Problems." Social Security Bulletin 43 (October): 11-20.
- Massey, Douglas S. (1981). "Dimensions of the New Immigration to the United States and the Prospects for Assimilation." Annual Review of Sociology 7: 57-85.
- Massey, Douglas S. (1982a). The Demographic and Economic Position of Hispanics in the United States: 1980. Washington, D.C.: Report to the National Commission for Employment Policy.
- Massey, Douglas S. (1982b). "Patterns and Effects of Hispanic Immigration to the United States. Washington, D.C.: Report to the National Commission for Employment Policy.

- Mathematica Policy Research (1979a). Evaluation of the Economic Impact of The Job Corps Program: First Follow-Up Report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, Report Number 7.
- Mathematica Policy Research (1979a). An Examination of Job Corps Participation. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, Report Number 8.
- Mathematica Policy Research (1979a). A Comparative Evaluation of Benefit and Costs of the Job Corps After Seven Months of Postprogram Follow-Up. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, Report Number 10.
- Maynard, Rebeca A. (1980). The Impact of Supported Work on Young School Drop-Outs. Princeton, N.J.: Mathematica Policy Research, Inc.
- Meyer, Robert (1981a). "The Labor Market Effects of Vocational Education." Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.
- Meyer, Robert (1981b). "The Determinants of Participation in Vocational Education: The Role of Schools and Personal Characteristics." Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.
- Meyer, Robert (1981c). "The Effects of Vocational Education on Post Secondary School Choices." Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute.
- Meyer, Robert and Wise, David (1982). "High School Preparation and Early Labor Force Experience." In Richard B. Freeman and David A. Wise (eds.). The Youth Labor Market Problem: Its Nature, Causes, and Consequences. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Michel, Ann (1980). "Public Job Creation--A Means to an End." In the Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment. A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs, and Policies. Volume III. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration.
- Mirengoff, William et al. (1982). CETA: Accomplishments, Problems and Solutions. Kalamazoo, Michigan: The Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.
- Moncraz, Raul (1969). A Study of the Effect of Environmental Change of Human Capital Among Selected Skilled Cubans. Ph.D. Dissertation, Florida State University.

- National Center for Education Statistics (1981). The Condition of Education, 1981. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- National Center for Education Statistics (1981). The Condition of Education, 1982. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education (1982). "Individualized Bilingual Instruction Program Evaluation Shows Increased Academic Skills." Forum (March).
- National Commission for Employment Policy (1979). Expanding Employment Opportunities for Disadvantaged Youth. Fifth Annual Report to the President and the Congress. Report Number 9.
- National Commission for Employment Policy (1981). The Federal Role in Vocational Education. Washington, D.C.: Report Number 12.
- National Commission for Employment Policy (1982). Hispanics and Jobs: Barriers to Progress. Washington, D.C.: Report Number 14.
- Nielsen, Francois and Fernandez, Roberto M. (1981). Achievement of Hispanic Students in American High Schools: Background Characteristics and Achievement. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Oleszwski, Donna and Moss, Philip (1981). "The Impact of Vocational Training and the Role of Size of Firm." Cambridge, Massachusetts: Report prepared for the National Commission on Employment Policy.
- Othergoy, Ricardo (1982). "Thinking About Bilingual Education: A Critical Appraisal." Harvard Educational Review (August).
- Ortiz, Vilma (1983). "Educational Attainment Among Hispanic Youth and Non-Hispanic White Youth." LA RED/THE NET, no. 67.
- Osterman, Paul (1980). Getting Started: The Youth Labor Market. Cambridge, MA.: The MIT Press.

- Paddilla, Amado M. (ed.) (1980). Acculturation: Theory, Models and Some New Findings. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.
- Palmer, John L. (ed.) (1978). Creating Jobs: Public Employment Programs and Wage Subsidies. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institute.
- Perry, Charles R. et al. (1975). The Impact of Government Manpower Programs; In General, and on Minorities and Women. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania.
- Peterson, Clairel and Scheff, T. J. (1965). "Theory, Method and Findings in the Study of Acculturation: A Review." International Review of Community Development. Vols. 13-14, pp. 155-176.
- Portes, Alejandro (1969). "Dilemmas of a Golden Exile: Integration of Cuban Refugee Families in Milwaukee." American Sociological Review. (August): 505-518.
- Portes, Alejandro (1977). "The New Wave: A Statistical Profile of Recent Cuban Exiles to the United States." Cuban Studies/Estudios Cubanos 1 (January): 1-32.
- Portes, Alejandro et al. (1981). "Six Years Later, the Process of Incorporation of Cuban Exiles in the United States: 1973-1979." Cuban Studies/Estudios Cubanos (July-January): 1-24.
- Rafferty, Max (1981). "Bilingual Education: Hoax of the '80's." The American Legion (March): 1-3.
- Reimers, David (1981). "Post-World War II Immigration to the United States: America's Latest Newcomers." The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. 454 (March): 1-12.
- Rivera, Charlene and Smich, Carmen (1982). "Language Proficiency Assessment: Research Findings and Their Implications." Pp. 37-44 in Stanley S. Seidner (ed.). Issues of Language Assessment: Foundations and Research. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.

- Rogg, Eleanor M. and Cooney, Rosemary Santana (1980). Adaptation and Adjustment of Cubans: West New York, New Jersey. Bronx, New York: Fordham University Hispanic Research Center, Monograph Number 5.
- Rogg, Eleanor M. (1974). The Assimilation of Cuban Exiles: The Role of Community and Class. New York: Federal Legal Publications.
- Seidner-Medina, Marie (1982). "The Assessment of Language Minority Students: Current Trends in the State of Illinois." Pp. 165-168 in Stanley S. Seidner (ed.). Issues of Language Assessment: Foundations and Research. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.
- Seidner, Stanley S. (ed.) (1982). Issues of Language Assessment: Foundations and Research. Rosslyn, Virginia: National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education.
- Seis, Gerald F. (1980). "English and the Melting Pot." The Wall Street Journal (October 9): 196.
- Sewell, William and Hauser, Robert M. (1975). Education, Occupation, and Earnings. New York: Academic Press.
- Somers, Gerald G. and Stromsdorfer, Ernst W. (1970). A Cost-Benefit of the In-School and Summer Youth Neighborhood Youth Corps. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin.
- Sowell, Thomas (ed.) (1978). Essays and Data on American Ethnic Groups. Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute Press.
- Stromsdorfer, Ernst W. (1980). "The Effectiveness of Youth Programs: An Analysis of the Historical Antecedents of Current Incentives." Pp. 88-111 in Bernard E. Anderson and Isabel V. Sawhill (eds.). Youth Employment and Public Policy. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Taggart, Robert (1979). "Improving Youth Employment Programs." ETA Review (June)
- Taggart, Robert (1980). Youth Employment Policies and Programs for the 1980's, Background Analysis for the Department of Labor, Employment and Training Components of the Youth Act of 1980. Youth Knowledge Development Report 2.12. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Taggart, Robert (1981). A Fisherman's Guide: An Assessment of Training and Remediation Strategies. Kalamazoo, Michigan: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.

"Taking Bilingualism to Task." Time (April 19): 68.

Taylor, Frederick (1980). "Youth Access to Private-Sector Jobs." In the Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment. A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs, and Policies. Volume III. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration.

Thuy, Vuong, G. (1983). "The Indochinese in America: Who are they and How are they doing?" Pp. 103-121 in Don T. Nakanishi and Marsha Kirano-Nakanishi (eds). The Education of Asian and Pacific Americans: Historical Perspectives and Perspectives and Prescription for the Future. Phoenix, AZ: The Oryx Press.

Tienda, Marta (1983). "Socioeconomic and Labor Force Characteristics of U.S. Immigrants: Issues and Approaches." Pp. 211-232 in Mary M. Kritz (ed.). U.S. Immigration and Refugee Policy: Global and Domestic Issues. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Company.

Troiike, Rudolph C. (1979). "Research Findings Demonstrates the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education." Center for Applied Linguistics and Bilingual Education.

U.S. Bureau of the Census (1982). Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1982-83. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

United States Commission on Civil Rights (1980). Success of Asian Americans: Fact or Fiction? Washington, D.C.: Clearinghouse Publication 64.

United States Commission on Civil Rights (1982). Unemployment and Underemployment Among Blacks, Hispanics, and Women. Washington, D.C.: Clearinghouse Publication 74.

U.S. Congress. Senate Judiciary Committee (1980). Review of the U.S. Refugee Resettlement Programs and Policies. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- U.S. Congress. Senate Judiciary Committee (1981). U.S. Immigration Policy and the National Interest. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Education (1982). The Condition of Bilingual Education in the Nation, 1982. Rosslyn, Virginia: InterAmerica Research Associates.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (1982). Report to the Congress: Refugee Resettlement Program. Washington, D.C.: Office of Refugee Resettlement.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (1981). Report to the Congress: Refugee Resettlement Program. Washington, D.C.: Office of Refugee Resettlement.
- U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (1981). Indochinese Refugee Assistance Program: Report to the Congress. Washington, D.C.: Social Security Administration, Office of Refugee Affairs.
- U.S. Department of Labor (various issues). Employment and Training Report to the President. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Labor (various issues). Manpower Report of the President. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Labor (1978). The Noneconomic Impacts of Job Corps. Washington, D.C.: Employment and Training Administration, R&D Monograph 64.
- U.S. General Accounting Office (1977). Domestic Resettlement of Indochinese Refugees--Struggle for Self-Reliance. Washington, D.C.: Report to the Congress of the United States by the Comptroller General of the United States.
- U.S. General Accounting Office (1977). The Indochinese Exodus: A Humanitarian Dilemma. Washington, D.C.: Report to the Congress of the United States by the Comptroller General of the United States.
- U.S. General Accounting Office (1982). Insights Into CETA's In-School Youth Programs. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

- Veltman, Calvin J. (1980). Relative Educational Attainments of Minority Language Children, 1976. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Warner, Lloyd W. and Sorole, Leo (1945). The Social System of American Ethnic Groups. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.
- Wenk, M. G. (1968). "Adjustment and Assimilation: The Cuban Refugee Experience." International Migration Review. (Fall):38-49.
- Williamson, John B. et al. (1975). Strategies Against Poverty in America. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Zimmerman, David R. (1980). "Public Sector Job Creation for Youth: Some Observations on its Role and Effectiveness." In the Vice President's Task Force on Youth Employment. A Review of Youth Employment Problems, Programs, and Policies. Volume III. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration.
- Zimmerman, David and Masters, Stanley (1979). A Pilot Study of the Value of Output of Youth Employment Programs. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Youth Programs, Special Report Number 21.